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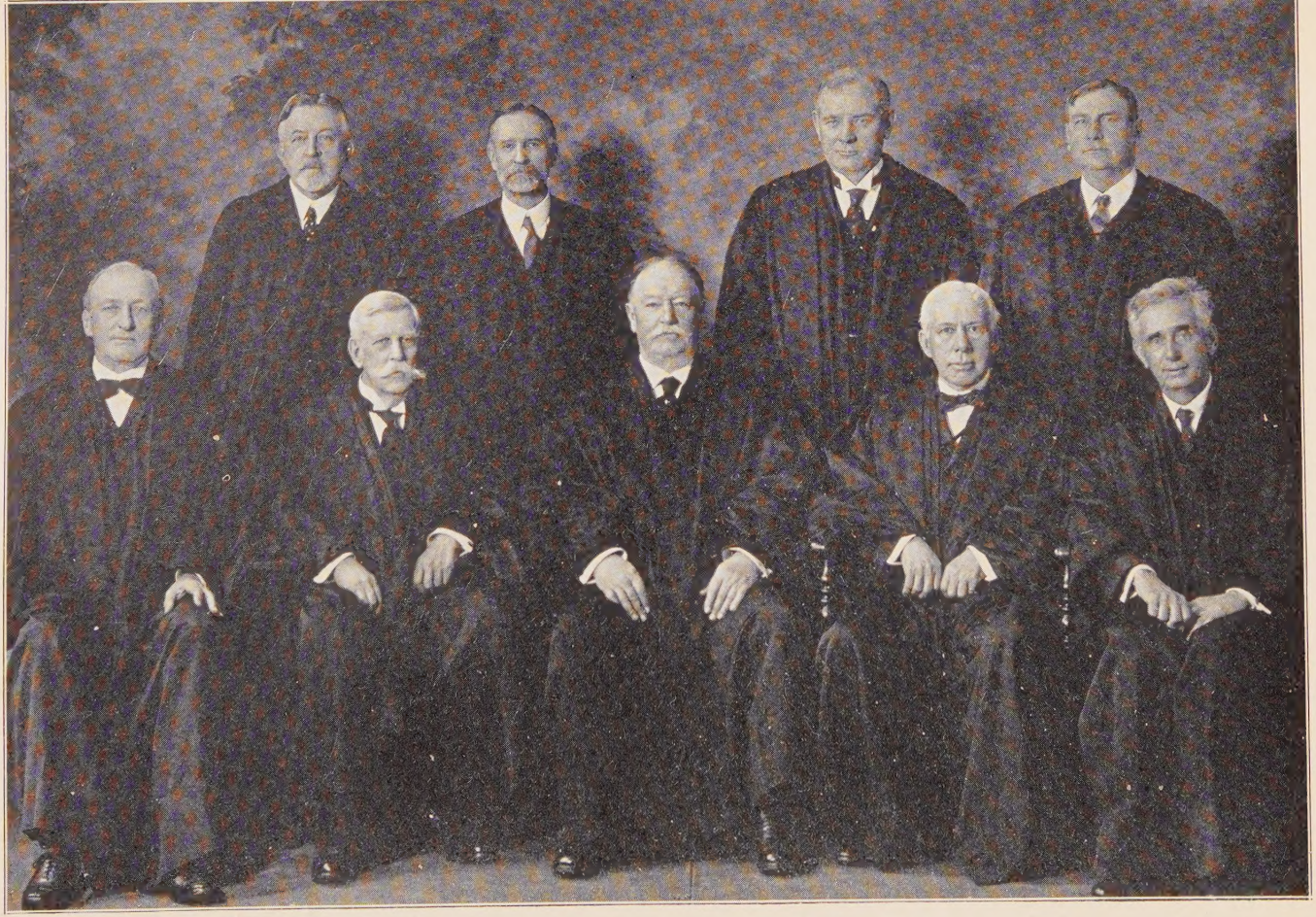

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THE
STANDARD HISTORY
OF THE WORLD

A NARRATIVE OF POLITICAL EVENTS AND A RECORD OF CIVILIZATION FROM THE EARLIEST HISTORICAL PERIOD TO THE PRESENT, EMBRACING A GENERAL SURVEY OF HUMAN PROGRESS AND ACHIEVEMENT, CIVIL GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, LITERATURE, SCIENCE AND ART.

BY

ISRAEL SMITH CLARE

Author of "Illustrated Universal History," "Complete Historical Compendium," "Universal History of the World," "History of the British-Boer War," and Other Works; Also Author of a Series of Forty Historical Maps; Member of the American Historical Association.

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Complete in Ten Volumes

VOLUME X—MODERN HISTORY—CONTINUED

Illustrated with Maps, Portraits and Diagrams

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INTRODUCTION

By JAMES ALBERT WOODBURN, A. B., PH. D.
Emeritus Professor History, Indiana University

THIS last volume of the Clare "History of the World," in its revised form, deals with South Africa, Modern China and Japan, and the World War. These are great fields of history.

Of making books on the World War there seems to be no end and it may seem that soon the world will hardly be able to contain all that is written. But for a succinct, brief summary of that world tragedy, with its causes, its progress, and its outcome, it is doubtful whether a better or more useful presentation can be found than is contained in Professor Haworth's 157 pages included in this volume. This section of the volume is entitled "The Eve of Armageddon." The story runs full through Armageddon itself where the nations were sifted and the great decisive battle was fought on that terrible day of judgment, in the bloody slaughter and travesty of the "war to end war."

The account contains a brief review of the affairs of the several European states just prior to the outbreak of the war. Their attitude toward imperialism and militarism; their competition for world trade and for colonial possessions and why Germany was late in entering upon this struggle; the alliance of the several states; their rivalries and conflicting interests which lay at the roots of the war; the German war policy and philosophy,—all these aspects of the causes of the war are clearly but compactly set forth.

The author then traces the beginnings and progress of the Great War, setting forth the relative strength of the Powers and the importance of the various fighting factors,—the submarine, the blockade, the tank, the airplane and poison gas.

The larger aspects of the war and its greater forces and personalities are treated of with judicial and commendable balance. The early military advance of Germany; her check on the Marne; the long drawn out military deadlock; the final break; the armistice and the peace; the part played by Turkey and Italy; the Russian debacle; the personal weight of Lloyd George; Foch and the unity of command; Hoover and Belgian relief; Wilson's leadership and America's entrance and the effectiveness of her contribution, together with Wilson's struggle at home for the League of Nations,—these and other aspects of the War are brought forward in order and into detailed relief. There follows a summary of the peace terms and a portrayal of European conditions in the aftermath. This part of the volume has a distinct advantage that comes from Professor Haworth's knowledge of recent current history and from his competency as a writer and an editor.

The editor has seen to it that the latest aspects of recent history are included in this final volume. It is brought "down to date." Here we have the late progress and problems of the League of Nations; Mussolini and the Fascisti in Italy; the Permanent Court of International Justice brought up to its ratification by the United States Senate in January, 1926; the Locarno Conference wherein Germany and France agreed to settle by peaceful means all questions that may arise between them, the territorial status to be guaranteed by the contracting parties. Thus the history of mankind in the making is connected with the distant past.

Professor Haworth has also contributed to other parts of the volume relating to the more recent history of China and Japan. Following the Chino-Japanese war with its savagery and atrocities and Japan's signal triumph, we find treated here the problem of Korean independence, the forced concessions in China to foreign European powers, Chinese unrest, the Boxer troubles and America's contention for the "open door" policy. The story is told of China's becoming a republic; of the civil war and disorders of later years; of the Lansing-Ishii Agreement, by which Japan guaranteed the territorial integrity of China and America recognized Japan's special interest in China similar to that of the United States in Latin America. We find here, also, the story of the rivalry between Russia and Japan over Korea and Manchuria leading to the Russo-Japanese war, of which we find here the causes, events and results,—with Japanese victories on land and sea out of which came loss of Russian prestige and the advance of Japan to a position among the great powers of the world. Roosevelt's influence as a peacemaker is duly recognized. We then have an account of Modern Japan, of her political and economic progress and of her part in the World War. In short the essential features in the history of the Far East for the last quarter of a century are here set forth in compact and readable form.

The earlier parts of the volume deal with Britain and Holland in South Africa, the Transvaal Republic and the Boer War, followed by sections on ancient and medieval China and Japan. These are phases of world history entirely too much neglected by American readers. It is well to make them available, since they deal with racial forces of prime importance and areas of the earth's surface containing nearly half the human race. The pages are full of information logically and clearly arranged. The volume illustrates the value of a good compilation covering vast periods of history.

The illustrations are vivid and helpful, and while they are not all realistic they are not misleading.

The Supplement adds real value to the volume. This contains an outline of the English constitution and some of the great fundamental documents that go to make up that historic system of partiamentary government,—the Magna Charta, the Habeas Corpus Act, the Bill of Rights of 1689, the Act of Settle-

ment of the Crown, 1701, the Act of Union with Scotland, 1707, and that with Ireland, 1800. The student of British history will be pleased to have these historic measures so conveniently at hand.

For American history we find the Constitution of the United States, the Declaration of Independence, Washington's Farewell Address and Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation. No better selection of documents could be made. Then follows a general chronology of World History, a long list of facts and dates which will be found convenient and useful to the reader for placing any leading event he may wish to find from the ancient days of Egyptian history to the close of the recent years following the World War. This final volume contains a full index of all the volumes.

The publishers and editors are justified in offering such a work for the use, not of scholars for their specialized studies and research, but of the general public who may wish to have something like a combination of a narrative history of the nations and a cyclopedia of historical knowledge.

James A. Woodburn

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CHAPTER XLVI.

MODERN CHINA AND JAPAN.

SECTION I.—CHINA UNDER THE MING AND MANCHU DYNASTIES (SINCE A. D. 1368).

Ming Dynasty.

As before remarked, the sixteen Chinese Emperors belonging to the native Ming dynasty, which ruled China after the expulsion of the Mongol Tartars, in 1368, were mostly able sovereigns. Toward the middle of the fifteenth century the Tartars renewed their invasions of China, but were repulsed. During the reign of the Emperor Shi-tsung, A. D. 1522–1567, the Manchu Tartars invaded China, but were driven back. The Manchus seem to have originated ages ago by the commingling of the Mongols and the Tungouse in the country afterward called Manchuria, which is north of China proper and east of Mongolia.

Portuguese and Dutch Intercourse with China.

During the long reign of Shi-tsung, in the fifteenth century, began the intercourse between China and Europe by the trading ventures of the Portuguese, who established themselves on the Chinese island of Macao. In 1604 the Dutch sought to open a direct trade with China by sending three vessels to that country, but these Dutch vessels were not permitted to enter any Chinese port. In 1622 the Dutch made a second effort to open a trade with China, but again they were resisted; whereupon they endeavored to enter the Chinese Empire by force, but were driven off. The Dutch, however, effected a lodgment on one of the Pescadore Islands, which afterward they relinquished for the more important Chinese island of Formosa.

Chino-Manchu Wars.

In the meantime several wars had taken place between the Chinese and the Manchus, and the Chinese reduced the Manchus to subjection. Finally the Emperor of China caused the King of Manchuria to be assassinated—an act which so exasperated the Manchus that they renewed the war with the Chinese.

Manchu Invasion.

The last Chinese Emperor belonging to the Ming dynasty was Hwae-tsung. Very soon after this Emperor's accession the King of Manchuria led his army toward the Chinese frontier and issued a proc-

lamation declaring that he had been divinely commissioned to rule the Chinese Empire.

China's Internal Troubles.

In the midst of this Manchu invasion, China was distracted by rebellions in different parts of her Empire. Bands of robbers infested the roads, placed themselves under favorite chiefs and bade defiance to the imperial army. One of these rebel chiefs was Li-tse-ching, who

Li-tse-ching's Rebellion.

marched into the provinces of Shensi and Honan, where he put to death all the mandarins and gained the favor of the common people by freeing them from the payment of taxes. Multitudes flocked to his standard, and whole battalions of the imperial army deserted to him. Li-tse-ching then considered himself sufficiently powerful to declare himself Emperor of China. He therefore led his army to Pekin and contrived to convey a number of his men in disguise into the capital, who were to open the gates to him when he appeared before the city at the head of his army.

His Capture of Pekin.

Shortly afterward the rebel chief entered Pekin in triumph at the head of three hundred thousand men, while the Emperor Hwae-tsung shut himself up in his palace and devoted himself to superstitious ceremonies. When the Emperor found himself betrayed and deserted by

Hwae-tsung's Desperation.

his own troops and servants, and saw that he was unable to escape, he resolved to kill his own children and to commit suicide rather than incur the disgrace of being taken captive by his rebellious subjects.

Suicide of the Emperor and the Empress.

Hwae-tsung accordingly conducted his beloved empress into a private and distant part of the gardens without saying a word. She at once comprehended his silent emotions of agony and despair; and, after embracing him tenderly, she retired into the woods, where she suspended herself by a silken string. The Emperor hastened to follow her in suicide. After cutting off the head of his young daughter with his cimeter, he hanged himself on another tree. His Prime Minister, his queens and his faithful eunuchs soon followed his example.

Li-tse-ching's Brutality.

Hwae-tsung had left behind him a written request that the conquering rebel leader should be satisfied with the destruction of the imperial family and not inflict any cruelty on the people. When the self-immolated Emperor's body was laid before Li-tse-ching, as he was seated upon the throne, the brutal wretch treated the corpse in the most shameful manner. He also beheaded two of the dead Emperor's sons and his Ministers, the eldest son making his escape.

Woo-san-kee's Attitude.

While the princes and nobles of the Empire submitted to the usurper Li-tse-ching, there was a celebrated general who alone refused to acknowledge the usurper. This was Woo-san-kee, who commanded the Chinese army stationed on the frontier of Manchu Tartary. This general resolved to avenge his dead sovereign and to punish the usurper. Li-tse-ching march against him with a powerful army.

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OLD CHINESE ARCHITECTURE

Left: Typical Gateway in Pekin

Right: Ancestral Hall of the Chun Family

His Father's Resolution and Devotion.

After investing the capital of Woo-san-kee's provinces of Liao-tung, Li-tse-ching resorted to the most cruel expedient to force him to surrender. The usurper showed Woo-san-kee his father loaded with chains, declaring that he should be sacrificed instantly if the son refused to submit. The brave general was almost overcome at so sad a spectacle, but remained firm in his opposition to the usurper. The good father of Woo-san-kee, understanding his son's intentions by the signs which he made, applauded his resolution and quietly submitted to his fate.

His Alliance with the Manchus.

For the purpose of revenging his dead sovereign, as well as his dead father, Woo-san-kee immediately concluded a peace with the Manchu Tartars and even solicited their active aid. The Manchus gladly accepted a proposal which opened to them a passage into China; and Tsong-ti, the Manchu king, immediately joined Woo-san-kee, thus forcing Li-tse-ching to raise the siege of the capital of the gallant general's province. The usurper was defeated in three great battles by Woo-san-kee and the Manchu king, but when Woo-san-kee desired to dismiss his Manchu allies they refused to return to their own country, and they even marched upon Pekin in pursuit of the fleeting Li-tse-ching. But the usurper, thinking himself unsafe in his capital, plundered and burned his palace and then fled with his vast treasures into the province of Shensi.

Li-tse-ching's Defeat and Flight.

Shun-chi, First of the Manchu Dynasty, A. D. 1644–1662.

Tsong-ti, the victorious King of Manchuria, at once took possession of China's great capital, but died almost immediately thereafter, after declaring his son Shun-chi his successor. SHUN-CHI soon afterward was conducted to Pekin, where he was welcomed joyfully on all sides as a deliverer, A. D. 1644. Thus ended the Ming dynasty of native Chinese Emperors, and thus began the Ta-tsing, or Manchu dynasty, which still occupies the throne of the Celestial Empire. Thus China was for the second time placed under the rule of a Tartar dynasty. The war which had effected this important revolution had lasted twenty-seven years, A. D. 1617–1644.

The Chinese Pirate Coxinga.

During this calamitous period for China a Chinese pirate named Coxinga kept the entire coast of China in constant alarm and laid siege to the city of Nankin, where his followers abandoned themselves to dissipation on their leader's birthday, in which condition they were attacked by the garrison, and many of them were slaughtered. Coxinga expelled the Dutch from the island of Formosa, which flourished for a time as an independent kingdom; but after Coxinga's death his son submitted to the Manchus, and that large island was annexed to the Chinese Empire.

The Manchu Tartar conquest of China was not yet complete, as resistance was kept up against the Manchus in different portions of the

Manchu Conquest of China Completed.

Celestial Empire. The Chinese nobility imagined that they should find the Manchus mere auxiliaries who would aid them in placing a native Chinaman upon the Chinese throne, but these allies regarded the Chinese Empire as the just reward of their trouble. Under these circumstances, submission to them was difficult. Competitors arose in the various provinces of China against Shun-chi, the Manchu Emperor, and hostilities were carried on obstinately both by sea and land; but the vigor of the Tartars, stimulated by the inestimable value of the prize within their grasp, was crowned with complete success.

Shun-chi's Good Rule.

Shun-chi was a mere youth when he ascended the throne of China; and his education was conducted by Adam Schall, a German Jesuit, who afterward was made Prime Minister of China by Shun-chi. Shun-chi acquitted himself with great address in his new station. He showed a marked deference to the ancient and fixed laws and customs of China. He conferred the offices of state upon such native Chinese as were found qualified for them, and he adhered to this principle in the disposal of the most exalted dignities. He evidently sought the public welfare rather than the extension of his own power. He encouraged learning and himself acquired some proficiency in several sciences.

Russian Trade.

In 1653 the Dutch again endeavored to open a trade with China, but again were refused admittance. Permission, however, was granted to the Russians to trade with the northern parts of the Chinese Empire.

Shun-chi's Death.

In consequence of misconduct and affliction in his domestic relations, the Emperor Shun-chi became melancholy, and died in 1662.

Kang-hi, A. D. 1662–1722.

Kang-hi, the son and successor of Shun-chi, reigned sixty years, A. D. 1662–1722, and was, next to Kublai Khan, the greatest sovereign that ever reigned over China. Under him the whole of the Celestial Empire was brought under subjection to the Manchu, or Ta-tsing dynasty; and the Empire, which had been distracted by repeated rebellions, impoverished by long and ruinous wars and oppressed by vicious administration, was restored to order and prosperity.

Kang-hi's Good Rule.

Kang-hi was both a great statesman and a great general. His chief counselors were two Frenchmen, Bouvet and Gerbillon, to whom he was indebted for much of the success which attended his efforts in governing China. He introduced wise reforms into the financial administration of the Chinese Empire and caused the Empire to be surveyed and a map of it to be made by European engineers. He was very anxious to make his subjects acquainted with the arts and sciences of Europe. He established institutions of learning and in every way vastly promoted science and literature. He showed great favor to the Jesuit missionaries who came to his court, and he profited so much by their instructions that he wrote a treatise on geometry; but all his efforts to give a new turn to Chinese literature were frustrated by the native Chinese

scholars and literary men, who refused to abandon the tracks of their ancestors, and the consequence was that nothing new was produced.

His Persecution of His Catholic Subjects.

At one time Kang-hi issued a severe decree against the Catholic converts among his subjects, demolishing all their churches; and only the influence of a Jesuit at the Chinese court prevented the destruction of the whole city of Ma-kau, but afterward this Jesuit was imprisoned with others and loaded with irons.

His Unhappy Domestic Relations.

As we have seen, the long reign of the Chinese Emperor Kang-hi extended into the eighteenth century. Kang-hi was unhappy in his domestic relations on account of the conduct of his two sons, who rebelled against their father and successively were banished from China.

Conquest of Formosa and Thibet.

Kang-hi enlarged the Celestial Empire by the conquest and annexation of the island of Formosa and the Kingdom of Thibet, the latter near the close of his reign. In 1720 he received the congratulations of his whole Empire upon the signal Chinese victory over the Eleuts, or Thibetans, who had ravaged China for several years—a victory which made Thibet a dependency of the Chinese Empire.

Czar Peter the Great's Visit.

In November, 1720, the illustrious Czar Peter the Great of Russia visited Pekin, with a splendid retinue in European costume, and was received at the Chinese court with all due respect; but he failed to secure the adoption of measures for the establishment of free intercourse between the Chinese and Russian Empires, which had been the object of his visit.

Yung-ching, A. D. 1722–1736.

Kang-hi died December 20, 1722, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, after a reign of sixty years; just before his death having declared his fourth son YUNG-CHING his successor. Yung-ching did not pursue his illustrious father's enlightened policy. The haughty conduct of the Jesuit missionaries in China aroused the new Emperor's suspicions; and he broke up their schools, imposed many restrictions upon them and finally banished them from China, retaining at court only a few with whose services he could not dispense. The native Christians were then persecuted, not excepting those of the imperial family. It must be confessed that the intriguing spirit of the Jesuits had given Yung-ching some reasonable grounds for alarm, and that their extravagant assertions of papal supremacy might have infused suspicion of their designing to render the Emperor of China dependent upon the Pope of Rome.

His Persecution of the Jesuits and His Catholic Subjects.

His Good Rule.

In other respects Yung-ching was a good sovereign, assiduous and indefatigable in the discharge of his duties, steady and resolute in his disposition, endowed with a degree of eloquence and address, and attentive in answering the petitions which were addressed to him. He himself governed entirely, and no monarch ever was more absolute in his rule or more dreaded by his subjects. By this unlimited authority he

was enabled to enforce a great many excellent laws and regulations, in the framing of which he had spent entire days and nights with the most unrelenting industry and perseverance. The most certain method of gaining his favor was by presenting him with some scheme tending to the public welfare or to the relief of his subjects in times of famine and pestilence—in the execution of which he spared no pains, if the measure seemed practicable. He preserved peace during his reign, and by his prudent precautions he averted the horrors of those famines and pestilences that periodically devastated China.

Great Earthquake at Pekin.

The city of Pekin was almost destroyed by an earthquake, November 13, 1731—the severest earthquake that ever had been felt in China, and in which four hundred thousand persons are said to have perished. The first shocks were so sudden and so violent that a hundred thousand of the inhabitants of the Chinese capital were buried in the ruins of their houses. Three hundred thousand people perished in the surrounding country, and entire villages were laid prostrate. The Emperor Yung-ching was affected deeply by the great calamity; and he ordered an account to be taken of the families that had suffered by it, with an estimate of the damage it had occasioned, while he himself advanced considerable sums for the relief of his suffering subjects.

Kien-lung, A. D. 1736–1796.

Yung-ching died in 1736 and was succeeded on the Chinese throne by his illegitimate son KIEN-LUNG, who, upon his accession, made a vow that if, like his grandfather Kang-hi, he were permitted to reign sixty years he then would abdicate his throne. In the estimation of Europe,

His Vow.

Kien-lung was the greatest of the sovereigns of the half-civilized nations during the last half of the eighteenth century.

Conquest of Central Asia.

Kien-lung's long reign was spent almost entirely in wars with the barbarous nations on the entire western frontier of China. These wars were mainly a series of ruthless massacres. The Chinese conquered the greater part of Central Asia. The Emperor Kien-lung always thought that he had a just cause when he massacred whole tribes. After the

Stone Tablet at Elee.

defeat and massacre of the Kalmuck Tartars, he erected a stone tablet at Elee with the following inscription: "The tree which Heaven plants, though man may fell it, cannot be uprooted. The tree which Heaven fells, though man may replant it, will never grow."

Persecution of the Chinese Christians.

To his own subjects Kien-lung was on the whole a just and good sovereign; but he inherited his father's dislike of the Christians, and for a time he cruelly persecuted them, accusing them of treasonable designs without the least shadow of reason. The relentless fury which he thus displayed was seconded eagerly by the mandarins, who had been jealous of the superior intelligence of the Jesuit missionaries, who had come as the apostles of a proselyting propaganda for the diffusion of Roman Catholic Christianity in China.

British and Dutch Embassies in China.

Kien-lung's fame extended to Europe; and missions from England, Holland and Russia were sent to his court. It was in 1793 that the famous British embassy under Lord Macartney arrived in China with the design of establishing commercial intercourse between Great Britain and China. It was in 1795 that the Dutch embassy under Titsing appeared in China. These embassies were not productive of the good results expected therefrom. The Chinese believed themselves the only enlightened nation in the world and claimed homage from all others as barbarians. The Emperor Kien-lung himself seems to have been free from these prejudices; but all his officers of state were opposed to an increase of foreign intercourse, which they feared would be fatal to their privileges. Kien-lung therefore pursued the narrow-minded, illiberal policy of his predecessors; and he sternly refused to permit the European powers to open commercial relations with China, making a single exception in favor of Russia, which country carried on considerable commerce with Mongolia and Manchuria, the Tartar provinces of the Celestial Empire.

Kien-lung's Illiberal Foreign Policy.

Kien-lung's Abdication.

Kien-lung's expressed desire to live to reign sixty years was granted; and, in accordance with the vow which he had made at the time of his accession, in 1736, he abdicated the Chinese throne in 1796, appointing his fifth son, KIA-KING, his successor. Kien-lung died February 11, 1799.

Kia-king, A. D. 1796–1820.

Kia-king's twenty-four years' reign, A. D. 1796–1820, was the first Chinese reign in the nineteenth century. He was a cruel and lustful tyrant, whose oppressions at length caused a rebellion of his subjects, which he was unable to suppress.

Rebellion.

Like his predecessors, Kia-king pursued the traditional Chinese policy in guarding against the admission of foreigners into the Celestial Empire.

Bible in Chinese.

During his reign the Bible was translated into the Chinese language by Mr. Morrison, an English Protestant missionary, A. D. 1807. Mr. Morrison and Mr. Milne, another English missionary, founded the Anglo-Chinese College at Malacca.

Taou-kwang, A. D. 1820–1850.

Upon Kia-king's death, in 1820, his second son, TAOU-KWANG, ascended the Chinese throne. Taou-kwang was chosen because he had saved his father's life during the insurrection of 1813. He is the first Chinese sovereign whose name is connected with English and American history.

Rebellions of the Tartars and the Meaou-tse.

Soon after his accession the Tartar tribes in the remote western dependency of Little Bucharia revolted, and they were subdued only after the most shocking barbarities had been committed. Soon afterward a more formidable rebellion of the mountain tribe of the Meaou-tse broke out; and this rebellion was suppressed by the government only after a struggle of six years, mainly by the bribery of the revolted chiefs. An insurrection of the Tartars of Mongolia occurred in 1826.

Commercial Intercourse with Great Britain.

The commercial intercourse between China and Great Britain was carried on entirely by the English East India Company until the charter of that powerful corporation expired in 1833, when the British government sent Lord Napier to superintend the English trade with China. As Lord Napier was refused permission to communicate with the Chinese viceroy at Canton on terms of equality, he attempted to force his way to Canton; but after a spirited engagement at the Bogue forts, September 11, 1834, he withdrew to Macao, where he died a month afterward. Thereafter for several years the trade between the Chinese and the British merchants was carried on without the superintendence of the British officials. One of the principal articles of this traffic was opium, of which large quantities were sold annually in China by British merchants.

Opium Traffic.

The Chinese government at first tolerated this traffic; but, at length, becoming alarmed by the terrible evils which the use of opium was producing among the Chinese people, it sought to put an end to so injurious a traffic. In the fall of 1837 Captain Elliott, the British agent at Canton, was ordered by the Chinese government to send away the opium ships and to discontinue the harmful traffic. This demand was disregarded, and the trade continued. Early in 1839 the Chinese viceroy Lin, by the orders of the imperial government at Pekin, seized and destroyed all the opium then at Canton, valued at ten million dollars. Thereupon an illicit traffic in opium sprang up, which was resented by the Chinese government, which declared all commercial intercourse with Great Britain at an end, thus bringing on the "Opium War," which has been alluded to in a preceding volume of this work. The British captured the island of Chusan and took the Bogue forts by storm.

China's Opium War with Great Britain.

Capture of Chinese Cities.

The capture of Canton in 1841 led to a suspension of hostilities, and that city was ransomed by the Chinese by the payment of six million dollars; but the war was renewed, and the great cities of Amoy, Ningpo and Chin-kiang-foo were taken by the British. By the Treaty of Nankin, August 29, 1842, China was required to pay a war indemnity of twenty-one million dollars; to cede the island of Hong Kong to Great Britain; to open five of her principal ports—Canton, Amoy, Ningpo, Shanghai and Foo Chow—to the commerce of the world, and to allow European consuls to have official residences therein.

Treaty of Nankin.

Other Treaties.

In 1842 Caleb Cushing arrived in China as an envoy from the United States government; and two years later he negotiated a treaty between China and the United States, July 3, 1844. A treaty between China and France was signed October 23, 1844.

China's New Era.

These treaties with the Western nations broke down the barriers of Chinese exclusiveness and opened a new era in the history of the

Celestial Empire by bringing China into more intimate commercial relation with Christendom.

Anti-American Riots at Canton.

In 1846 and 1847 there were anti-foreign outbreaks in China. In 1846 riots broke out at Canton, caused by a superstitious belief that a weather-vane on the top of the flagstaff over the American consulate interfered with the spirits of the air. A Chinaman was shot during the riots. The British interfered on behalf of the threatened Americans. The Emperor Taou-kwang allayed the excited passions of the mob by a conciliatory declaration that the Christian religion could be commended as a faith for inculcating the principles of virtue. He also sent Ke-Ying as a special commissioner to regulate amicably the commerce of the foreign merchants at Canton.

Anti-English Riots at Canton.

In March, 1847, riots again occurred at Canton, when a small English hunting and fishing party violated the agreement confining them to the foreign concessions at Canton, the party being stoned by a Chinese mob. Sir John Davis denounced this riot as an international outrage; and, regardless of the accepted treaty stipulations, he declared: "I will exact and acquire from the Chinese government the guarantee that British subjects shall be as free from molestation and insult in China as they would be in England." On April 1, 1847, all the available British forces at Hong Kong were summoned to Canton. Three steamships, conveying two regiments of British troops, convoyed by a British man-of-war, attacked and recaptured the Bogue forts, without any resistance on the part of the Chinese garrison, who acted under orders from Ke-Ying. A British landing force seized the batteries and spiked all the cannon. The forts opposite Canton were occupied without opposition, and Canton was at the mercy of the British. Ke-Ying accepted the British ultimatum that Canton be opened to Englishmen two years later. The Chinese Emperor accepted the result under protest.

Hien-fung, A. D. 1850–1862.

The Emperor Taou-kwang died February 24, 1850, and was succeeded by his son HIEN-FUNG. During the same year a formidable rebellion headed by Tae-ping Wang broke out in the southern provinces of China. The rebels were at first successful and overran a considerable portion of Southern China. This rebellion continued fourteen years. In 1857 the Mohammedans of Yunnan, the most south-western province of China, rose in rebellion; and for some time they were successful. This revolt lasted sixteen years.

Tae-ping Wang and Yunnan Rebellions.

China's Deceit.

The Chinese government never intended to observe its treaties with the Christian powers in good faith, and its treatment of the foreigners within its dominions always was marked by deceit and ill-concealed hostility. This feeling caused constant disputes between the Chinese authorities and the foreign consuls and merchants. Matters were

China's War with Great Britain and France.

brought to a crisis in October, 1856, by the seizure of the *Arrow*, a British vessel built in China, by the Chinese officials. This act led to a desultory war of several years between China and Great Britain, in which the Chinese generally were successful. France, having suffered the same wrongs at the hands of the Chinese, made common cause with Great Britain. These two European powers determined to compel China to a settlement, sending a combined expedition against China in 1857. The Anglo-French fleet bombarded Canton, December 28, 1857; and the next day the British and French land forces, numbering six thousand men, entered the city. The Chinese viceroy, Yeh, was taken prisoner; but the Chinese government sought to offset this reverse by degrading Yeh and appointing his successor.

Capture of Canton.

Capture of the Peiho Forts.

Russia and the United States now united with Great Britain and France in seeking to compel China to negotiate more liberal treaties with the Western powers. As the action of the Chinese government was unsatisfactory, the allied forces assailed and took the Taku forts, at the mouth of the Peiho, and advanced to Tien-tsin, fifty miles above the mouth of that river. Thereupon the Chinese government yielded and at once concluded treaties with Great Britain, France, Russia and the United States, stipulating for the residence of foreign Ministers at Pekin; for the opening of several additional ports to foreign commerce; for the free navigation of the river Yangtse-kiang, and for the settlement of the transit-dues question. China paid to Great Britain an indemnity of five and a half million dollars and paid a smaller sum to France.

China's Treaties with the Western Nations.

China's Evasion.

As usual, China sought to evade this treaty, endeavoring to prevent the foreign Ministers from reaching Pekin by prescribing a most unusual route for them and imposing various vexatious delays upon them. Thereupon the British Minister ordered the British fleet under Admiral Hope to force the passage of the Peiho river. That naval commander attempted to execute the orders of the Minister, but was repulsed with heavy loss by the Taku forts.

British Fleet Repulsed.

Action of the Foreign Envoys.

The British and French Ministers then retired to Shanghai to await instructions from their respective governments. The United States Minister, Mr. Ward, decided to accept the Chinese conditions; and, after undergoing many inconveniences and indignities, he at length arrived at Pekin; but, as he was granted an interview with the Chinese Emperor only on conditions degrading to himself and his country, he returned in disgust to Shanghai, where he joined the British and French Ministers.

Capture of Tien-tsin and Pekin.

Great Britain and France resented China's bad faith by renewing the war with the Celestial Empire, and a combined British and French expedition proceeded against Pekin. The allies took the Taku forts

August 21, 1860, and occupied Tien-tsin three days later. The Chinese authorities sought to check the advance of the allies by negotiation; but the allies, understanding the Chinese design, pushed on to the Chinese capital. The allies reached Pekin on October 6, 1860, plundered and burned the Emperor's summer palace and obtained possession on one of the gates of the city on October 13, 1860. Thereupon the Chinese government yielded and at once renewed and ratified its treaties with Great Britain and France. The allies then retired from Pekin, and China ever since has observed her treaties with the Western powers in good faith. In 1859 China ceded a large part of the valley of the Amour river, embracing much of Manchuria, to Russia.

Treaty of Tien-tsin.

The Emperor Hien-fung died in 1862, and was succeeded by his son Yung-chi. After great bloodshed, the gigantic rebellion of Tae-ping Wang finally was suppressed in 1864, and the imperial authority was reëstablished in the revolted districts of Southern China. The Mohammedan rebellion in the south-western province of Yunnan was quelled in 1873, in the spring of which year the Chinese imperial forces captured the city of Tali-foo, the capital of the province of Yunnan, after a vigorous siege. Upon entering the conquered city the imperial army massacred thirty thousand of their captives. The Mohammedan Sultan, Suleiman, poisoned himself rather than be taken prisoner by his victorious enemies. In 1862 a second Mohammedan rebellion broke out in the north-western provinces of China, but it was crushed in 1873.

Yung-chi, A. D. 1862–1875.

Three Great Rebellions Suppressed.

In 1864 the provinces of Soongaria and Kashgar achieved their independence under the able and powerful Yakoob Khan, who maintained an independent government until his death in 1877, and who was one of the greatest chieftains of Central Asia in modern times.

Yakoob Khan's Revolt.

In 1868 a Chinese embassy headed by Anson Burlingame, formerly United States Minister to China, visited the United States and the various European powers and entered into new treaties with all those powers. Mr. Burlingame died at St. Petersburg in 1869, during his mission to Russia as the head of this Chinese embassy.

Burlingame Embassy.

In 1870 the Chinese attacked the French at Tien-tsin and massacred the consul, the vice-consul, the interpreter of the French legation at Pekin and his wife, a Catholic priest, nine Sisters of Charity and some others. The French consulate, the cathedral and the missionary hospital were destroyed by the Chinese mob. The Chinese government severely punished the outrage and made an apology to France.

Anti-French Riots.

In 1871 China became involved in a dispute with Russia and was obliged to cede to that European power the district of Kulja and the entire basin of the Elee, a region comprising about six hundred thousand square miles and containing about two million inhabitants.

China's Cession to Russia.

Kwang-su, since A. D. 1875.

The Emperor Yung-chi, who had become of age only in 1873, died in 1875 and was succeeded by his son KWANG-SU, who was a mere child. The first railway in China—from Shanghai to Wu-Sung, a distance of eleven miles—was opened June 30, 1876. This road was built by an English company and at first was regarded with hostility by the Chinese, so that it seemed probable at one time that the Chinese government would cause the tracks to be torn up; but the vigorous protestations of the British Minister obliged China to remain faithful to her obligations and to respect the rights of the owners of the road. The hostility of the Chinese changed to delight as soon as the trains commenced running, and they loudly praised this new means of locomotion.

China's First Railroad.

China's Recovery of Kashgar.

For twelve years the Chinese had been engaged in a struggle for the recovery of Kashgar, which had gained its independence under Yakoob Khan in 1864; but they were able to recover their lost province only after the death of Yakoob Khan, in 1877.

China's War with France.

The French invasion and conquest of Tonquin during France's war with Anam in 1883 brought on a war between France and China in 1884, as the Chinese government claimed a suzerainty over Tonquin. The French navy bombarded Foo Chow in August, 1884, and the French armies gained some victories over the Chinese forces in Tonquin; but the great Chinese victory at Langson, in the spring of 1885, led to a treaty of peace by which France was obliged to relinquish her claim for indemnity from China, while China recognized France's suzerainty over Tonquin.

Neighboring Empires of Siam, Anam and Burmah.

Farther India, or India beyond the Ganges, has been the seat of several empires. Of these Siam is very ancient, but Anam and Burmah rose to importance only in the eighteenth century. Pegu was an ancient kingdom of Farther India which was conquered about 1755 by Alompra, the victorious founder of the Empire of Burmah, who established the complete independence of Burmah, subdued the small neighboring kingdoms, invaded Siam, and, after a series of victories, besieged the Siamese capital. Only Alompra's sudden illness and death in 1760 prevented his entire subjugation of Siam. The Burmese army at once evacuated Siam, which thus remained independent. In 1767 a Chinese army invaded Burmah and approached its capital, but was routed with great slaughter in a pitched battle. The Chinese failed in another invasion of Burmah some years afterward. Several subsequent wars between Siam and Burmah resulted in the extension of Burmese territory.

Burmese Invasion of Siam.

Chinese Invasion of Burmah.

British Conquest of Burmah.

Burmah's three wars with Great Britain resulted in the conquest and extinction of the Burman Empire as an independent power. In the first of these wars the British conquered and annexed a large slice of Burmese territory in 1826. In the second war the British conquered

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FARMERS' WIVES HEADING BARLEY

and annexed another large portion of Burmese territory in 1852. In the third war the British subdued the remainder of the Burman Empire, and that once-powerful state of Farther India ceased to exist as an independent nation by annexation to British India in 1885.

French Conquest of Anam.

In 1858 the Empire of Anam became involved in a war with France and Spain, and the French conquered and annexed a large part of Anamese territory in 1862. Another war between France and Anam begun in 1883 ended in the conquest of Tonquin and Cochin China in 1885, and the whole of Anam since has been under the sovereignty of the French Republic, under the name of French Indo-China. In 1893 France forced Siam to cede all her territory east of the Mekong river to French Indo-China.

SECTION II.—ANCIENT, MEDIÆVAL AND MODERN JAPAN (B. C. 660—A. D. 1894).

Japan's Early History.

The early history of Japan is purely fabulous. The islands of Yezo and Hondo were occupied by an indigenous savage race, called Ainōs. The islands of Shikoku and Kiushiu were inhabited by mixed races from various portions of Southern Asia. The Japanese legends state that when the divine ancestors of the Japanese imperial family came to the southern islands they found those islands thus peopled. These and their descendants taught the people the simple arts of civilization and conquered the savage inhabitants of the two great northern islands.

Jimmu Tenno, the First Mikado.

The authentic history of Japan begins with Jimmu Tenno, the first *Mikado*, or Emperor, about B. C. 660. This great personage established his power over the southern islands about that time and subdued the Ainōs of the northern islands, whereupon he ascended the throne of Japan. He was a good and wise ruler as well as a great warrior. He established his capital near Kioto and gave his subjects a code of laws and a strong, settled government. He exerted himself earnestly to promote the civilization of his dominions and was esteemed highly by his subjects. His descendants occupied the Japanese throne for many centuries, bearing the title of Mikado and claiming to reign by divine right, as their illustrious ancestor was considered the fifth in descent from the sun-goddess. The anniversary of Jimmu Tenno's accession to the Japanese throne still is celebrated in Japan as a national holiday.

His Successors.

Under Jimmu Tenno's descendants Japan steadily advanced in civilization and prosperity. We are told that twelve Mikados reached the age of a hundred years. One of them is said to have reigned one hundred and one years. The reigns of the first seventeen are said to

have averaged over sixty-one years. From the seventeenth to the thirty-first the average reign is little over twelve years.

Sujin, the Civilizer.

In B. C. 97 began the reign of the tenth Mikado, SUJIN THE CIVILIZER, who labored to promote the prosperity of his subjects, improved the Japanese system of irrigation and founded a new military system.

Keiko.

The twelfth Mikado was KEIKO, whose son Yamato-Daké extended the

Jingu-Kogu.

Empire by conquering the Kuanto and was a great legendary hero. In A. D. 203 the Empress-Regent JINGU-KOGO subdued Korea. Her

Ojin.

son and successor OJIN was a great warrior. He was deified after his death and is now worshiped as the Japanese god of war.

Korean Migration and Buddhism.

After the Japanese conquest of Korea there was a large Korean migration to Japan, and the Korean immigrants introduced Buddhism into the Empire. This faith spread silently among the Japanese; and in A. D. 552 a company of doctors, diviners, astronomers and mathematicians came from Korea to live at the Japanese court, bringing a band of Buddhist missionaries with them. This Korean immigration introduced the civilization of continental Asia into Japan and brought with it art, science, letters, literature and the Buddhist religion, all of which hitherto had been unknown in the Japanese Empire; thus changing the character and history of Japan forever.

Triumph of Buddhism.

The Mikado and his subjects endeavored to suppress Buddhism; but that religion grew in spite of all opposition, and in A. D. 593 the Empress SUIKO granted perfect toleration, since which time Buddhism has grown with unceasing rapidity. At present it is one of the national religions of Japan, the other being Shintoism. The Empress

Empress Suiko.

Suiko was one of the great sovereigns of Japan. She caused written codes of laws to be framed, constituted a new and rigid system of official grades, caused the Empire to be resurveyed and fixed the boundaries of its provinces more accurately.

Dissensions and Civil Wars.

For the next five centuries the Mikado's power declined, and Japan was distracted by the contentions of rival families. The Mikado became a mere puppet of the great nobles, who increased their own power. The Mikado was allowed one wife and twelve concubines, so as to insure offspring; and the succession depended upon the Mikado's arbi-

Office of Shogun.

trary will. This was the cause of the centuries of civil war that followed. To end this anarchy and strife, the Mikado finally established the office of *Shogun* and assigned to him the civil power of the realm.

Yoritomo, the First Shogun.

Yoritomo, the first Shogun, was a great Japanese hero and was the son of a Minamoto noble by a peasant family. He quickly established his power over the whole Empire and soon reduced all the rebellious nobles to submission. He usurped all the powers of the government, leaving to the Mikado his hereditary rank, dignity and character, A. D. 1184. Thenceforth until the Japanese revolution of 1868 the

Shogun was the real ruler of Japan, while the Mikado was the true source of power. The office of Shogun was made hereditary in Yoritomo's family, but eventually passed to other families. Yoritomo established his capital at Kamakura, about thirty-five miles from Yeddo, and set up a magnificent court. Kioto remained the Mikado's capital. Yoritomo died A. D. 1199, after a reign of fifteen years.

Dual Government.

The Hojo family then held the Shogunate until 1333 and maintained order and tranquillity in Japan for over a century. They encouraged literature, science and art. During their rule the resources of Japan were developed, and some branches of useful handicraft and the fine arts attained a perfection in that country never since surpassed. Uneki, the celebrated image carver, sculptor and architect, flourished during that period; as did also the lacquer artists, who are the "old masters" in that branch of art. The military spirit of the Japanese people was kept alive, and tactics were improved, while the civil administration was simplified. Splendid temples were erected, and the glory and prestige of this isolated Far Eastern empire were maintained at a high state.

The Hojo Family.

Japan's Progress in Civilization.

In 1274 Kublai Khan, the great Mongol conqueror of China, sent an expedition against Japan; but these Tartar invaders were routed. In 1281 Kublai Khan sent a still more formidable fleet and army against Japan, but this armament was destroyed by a storm and by the desperate valor of the Japanese. Since then no foreign power has attempted to invade Japan.

Kublai Khan's Invasions.

In 1333 the Mikado cast off the Shogun's rule and asserted his power; but in 1336 he again was forced to submit to his great vassal, and the dual government was restored. From 1336 to 1573 Japan was governed by thirteen Shoguns of the Ashikaga family. Nobunaga, who became Shogun in 1558, attempted to reduce the whole Empire to submission to him, but finally was killed by an officer whom he had offended. He persecuted the Buddhists, burned their temples and monasteries and caused thousands of them to be massacred. To counteract their influence, he showed great favor to the Jesuits, who were then in the midst of their labors in Japan. After his death Japan was torn by dissensions for a year until Hidéyoshi defeated his rivals, made himself Shogun and forced the Mikado to confirm him permanently in his office.

Ashikaga Family of Shoguns.

Nobunaga.

Persecution of Buddhists.

Hidéyoshi.

Hydéyoshi was a great warrior and a great statesman and framed a useful code of laws, called the *Laws of Taiko*. He contemplated the conquest of China and sent an army of one hundred and sixty thousand men into Korea in 1592. The Koreans at once submitted; but Hydéyoshi's death, September 15, 1598, obliged the expedition to return to Japan immediately.

Laws of Taiko.

Invasion of Korea.

Tokugawa Iyeyasu as Shogun.

After a struggle of a few years, the great Tokugawa Iyeyasu deprived Hidéyoshi's infant son of the Shogunate and made himself Shogun, A. D. 1603. His family held the Shogunate until 1867, and during the period of their rule Japan was blessed with profound peace. Yeddo hitherto had been a small town; but Iyeyasu made it his capital, and in a few years it became a populous and magnificent city. He

His Great Rule.

perfected the system of dual government; and, although he did not dare to depose the Mikado and professed to rule in his name and for his benefit, he and his successors firmly wielded the real powers of the Empire. Under Iyeyasu the feudal system of Japan was brought to perfection, and the great nobles were made directly responsible to the Shogun.

Tyranny of the Shoguns.

Under Iyeyasu and his successors a perfect tyranny had full sway in Japan. The Chinese classics were to constitute the limit of learning. The Buddhist hierarchy was given the encouragement of government example and patronage to crush the intellect of the Japanese masses. Foreign ideas were interdicted. Edicts ordered the destruction of all boats built upon a foreign model and forbade the building of vessels of any size or shape superior to that of a junk. Belief in Christianity was punished with death, as was also traveling abroad or studying foreign languages or introducing foreign customs. People were required to seal their upper windows and to bow their faces to the earth before the august train of the Shogun. The populace were required even to do obeisance with their faces in the dust before his tea jars and cooking pots. The study of ancient history was forbidden to the lower classes and discouraged among the higher, because it would expose the origin of the Shogunate. The life-blood of many a master spirit was drained by a rigid censorship; while the preparation of false and garbled histories, which extolled the reigning Shogunate or which glorified the dual system of government as the best and only one for Japan, was encouraged. A large army of spies was kept in the pay of the government. The eight classes of the Japanese people were kept contented and happy. A fertile soil and genial climate gave food in abundance. As there was no commerce, there was no vast wealth to be accumulated. The Samurai alone possessed all learning and education and also were given the sword and privilege. The daimios were kept poor, and no two of them were permitted to meet in private or to visit each other without spies.

Marco Polo, Dutch and Portuguese Traders and the Jesuits.

In the meantime Christianity had been introduced into Japan. Japan was first made known to Europeans in the thirteenth century by Marco Polo, the great Venetian traveler, during his residence in China. This knowledge was extended subsequently by Portuguese and Dutch traders, during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The Portu-

guese first visited the country in 1542. Jesuit missionaries soon followed; and in 1549 St. Francis Xavier, "the Apostle of the Indies," came to Japan. These Jesuit missionaries were treated kindly at first; and they made many converts to Christianity, even among the most powerful nobles.

Privileges to Dutch Traders.

In 1582 these Japanese Christians sent an embassy to the Pope to assure him of their submission to the Roman Catholic Church. In 1598 the Dutch opened commercial intercourse with Japan; and in 1609 they were granted the port of Hirado, where they built a factory or trading post. They were granted important privileges. We have seen that Nobunaga favored the Portuguese and the Jesuits for the purpose of destroying Buddhism. Hidéyoshi persecuted the native Christians because they opposed his tyranny, and he finally banished the Portuguese and the Jesuit missionaries on account of their insolent defiance of his government.

Expulsion of Portuguese and Jesuits.

Persecution of Japanese Christians.

This edict was renewed in 1596, and the next year twenty-three priests were massacred at Nagasaki in one day. The native Christians espoused the cause of the Jesuit missionaries; whereupon they were persecuted terribly, their churches and schools being destroyed, while it was declared treason to hold to or teach Christianity. The Portuguese were deprived of their privilege of free access to the Empire and were confined to the island of Deshima at Nagasaki.

Massacre and Renewed Persecution of Christians.

In 1622 a terrible massacre of the Christians occurred at Nagasaki, many being sacrificed with horrible tortures. Driven to despair, the surviving native Christians plotted to overthrow the government. This plot was discovered in 1637, whereupon the persecution was renewed with increased severity. The Portuguese were banished from Japan forever, and all natives and Japanese ships were forbidden to leave the country under severe penalties.

Trade with the Dutch.

After the Portuguese had been thus expelled from Japan their trade and privileges at once were bestowed upon the Dutch, who, being Protestants, were not hated as were the Jesuits and their disciples. In 1640 the native Christians openly rebelled, but finally were reduced to submission; and thirty-one thousand of them were massacred at the capture of their last stronghold. In 1641 the Dutch were forced to abandon their factory at Hirado and to remove to the island of Deshima, whence they were permitted to trade with the Empire under certain rigid conditions; and for the next two centuries they enjoyed a monopoly of the trade with Japan.

Christian Rebellion and Massacre.

Buddhism and Shintoism.

After Christianity had been thus stamped out in Japan the Japanese devoted themselves to their old religions. The Shoguns favored Buddhism, while the Mikados supported Shintoism. Thus for two centuries Japan rigidly excluded herself from the rest of the world.

Reaction against the Shoguns.

In the meantime a strong reaction had been growing up in Japan against the Shogun's rule. The educated classes of Japan never had ceased to consider the Mikado the only legitimate sovereign of Japan. These persons began to draw nearer to the Mikado as early as the beginning of the eighteenth century and discussed among themselves measures for restoring the Mikado to his lawful position. The second Prince of Mito originated this movement by gathering many scholars about him and having the *History of Japan* prepared under his guidance.

Prince of Mito.

His History of Japan.

This prince died in 1700, but his son and successor took up his work and caused the great history to be completed in 1715. This work immediately became a classic and was read eagerly by all classes. Its main objects were to show that the Mikado was the rightful sovereign of Japan and that the Shogun was a military usurper.

External History of Japan.

The *External History of Japan*, the product of twenty years of labor on the part of the great scholar, Rai Sanyo, published in 1827, had the same object in view. The influence of these works was great, and thinking men were convinced that a collision between the partisans of the Mikado and those of the Shogun was inevitable.

Failure at Revolt.

Thinking the time propitious, the Prince of Mito resolved to bring on the struggle in 1840; but his efforts were suppressed promptly by the Shogun, and he was taken prisoner and kept in captivity twelve years. After this failure the southern clans prepared secretly for another effort.

Commodore Perry's American Expedition to Japan.

The Japanese having treated the wrecked crews of European and American vessels on the Japanese coasts with great harshness, the United States government sent an expedition under Commodore Matthew C. Perry to Japan in 1852, to negotiate a treaty of commerce and friendship with the Empire of Japan. After delivering the President's letter to the Japanese authorities Commodore Perry sailed for China, but returned to Japan in 1854 and succeeded in negotiating a treaty with the Shogun at Kanagawa, March 31, 1854, by which the ports of Shimoda and Hakodate were opened to foreign commerce and made the places of residence of American consuls.

His Treaty.

Japan's Commercial Treaties with the Western Nations.

In September of the same year, 1854, a British squadron under Sir James Stirling entered the harbor of Nagasaki and concluded a treaty with the Shogun, opening the ports of Hakodate and Nagasaki to foreign commerce. The Russians and the Dutch made similar treaties with the Shogun. Mr. Harris, the United States consul, made a still more liberal treaty with the Shogun, June 17, 1857, by which the harbor of Nagasaki was opened to American commerce. In spite of the opposition of the Japanese, Mr. Harris proceeded to Yeddo in 1858 and concluded a third treaty still more favorable to the United States

During the same year Lord Elgin, escorted by a British squadron, reached Yeddo and negotiated a treaty with the Shogun by which the ports of Hakodate, Nagasaki and Kanagawa were opened to British commerce after July 1, 1859. Thenceforth until 1874 Japan concluded treaties of friendship with Russia, Holland, Prussia, Portugal, Spain, France, Switzerland, Italy, Austria, Greece, Denmark, Sweden and Norway, the Hawaiian Islands, Peru and China. Commodore Perry's treaty was the beginning of Japan's intercourse with the Western nations—an intercourse which has entirely changed the destiny of that ancient and remote Oriental empire.

Reaction in Favor of the Mikado.

The Japanese considered the Shogun's action in negotiating these treaties as another usurpation of the Mikado's power, and his course aroused a strong reaction in favor of the Mikado. The nation resented the Shogun's violation of the traditional policy of non-intercourse with foreigners, and the country resounded with the cry of "Honor the Mikado and expel the barbarian." The Shogun was considered a traitor, and the Mikado's cause was vastly strengthened.

Ii's Usurpation of the Shogunate.

Upon the Shogun's death, in 1858, his able but unscrupulous Prime Minister, Ii, became regent, and, setting aside the legitimate successor, conferred the Shogunate upon the infant Prince of Kii, but kept the real power in his own hands. He suppressed the opposition to his arbitrary act by imprisoning and executing the leaders of the movement against him. His action in sending an embassy to the United States and Europe in 1859 without consulting the Mikado increased the hatred of the Japanese people toward him; and he was assassinated in the streets of Yeddo, March 23, 1860.

War with the United States, Great Britain, France and Holland.

The Mikado's party now rapidly increased in numbers; and the Shogun's followers sought to recover their lost ground by trying to persuade the foreigners to close the ports and leave the country, but failed in this effort. About this time the forces of the Prince of Choshiu, or Nogato, by the Mikado's order, fired upon the ships of the United States, Great Britain, France and Holland. These powers punished this act by sending a combined squadron to Shimonoseki and capturing that port after a severe bombardment, A. D. 1864. Japan was obliged to pay an indemnity of three million dollars. This occurrence showed the Japanese the power of the foreigners and made them more careful in their conduct toward them in the future.

Civil War between the Shogun and the Mikado.

Though the Prince of Choshiu had obeyed the Mikado in firing upon the foreign vessels, he had disobeyed the Shogun; and in 1866 the Shogun marched against him to punish him for his disobedience. The Shogun's forces were armed and disciplined in the old Japanese style, while those of the Prince of Choshiu were armed with European rifles and artillery and had been disciplined by Dutch officers. A campaign

of three months ended in the Shogun's overwhelming defeat; and he died September 19, 1866, worn out with disease and with mortification at his failure.

Keiki, the Last Shogun.

His successor, Keiki, was the last Shogun. The Mikado's party grew bolder, and in October, 1867, urged the Mikado to abolish the Shogunate and to resume the government himself. This proposal was sustained so generally by the most powerful princes and nobles of the Empire that Keiki resigned the Shogunate, November 9, 1867.

The Mikado's Revolutionary Changes.

The Mikado's party seized the palace on January 3, 1868, drove out the nobles and established a government under which the highest offices were filled by the *kuge*, or court nobles of the imperial family; those of the next order by the *daimios*, or courtiers, and those of the third order by men selected by the Samurai. This gave the whole power of the government of the great Japanese Empire to the Satsuma, Choshiu, Tosa and Hizen clans.

Complete Restoration of the Mikado's Authority.

The ex-Shogun was highly displeased with this arrangement and appealed to arms to recover his lost power, but he was defeated in a three days' battle and fled to Yeddo in a United States steamer. Seeing the hopelessness of further resistance, he surrendered to the Mikado's forces, announced his determination never again to oppose the Mikado and retired to private life. The Shogun's submission fully restored the Mikado's authority throughout the Empire as it had existed previous to A. D. 1184 and gave tranquillity to Japan.

The Mikado's New Foreign Policy.

Hitherto the Mikado's party had been the most inveterate enemies of the treaties negotiated by the Shogun with the foreign powers. A few men among them had profoundly studied the subject and had perceived the folly of holding their country isolated from the rest of the world. These men now devoted themselves to promoting the intercourse of Japan with the treaty powers and found this an easy task, as the leaders of the Mikado's party now had become convinced of the vast superiority of the foreign system of warfare over the native. They likewise feared that the foreign powers would force Japan to observe the treaties negotiated with the Shogun and were convinced that the Japanese were not able to make a successful resistance. They therefore invited the representatives of the foreign powers to a conference at Kioto.

Friendly Intercourse with the Western Nations.

Many of the Japanese court nobles never had seen a foreigner, and when they saw these foreign representatives at the conference they instantly abandoned their prejudices against them. The treaties with the Western powers therefore were renewed cordially, and the foreign powers recognized the Mikado as the only legal sovereign of Japan. The foundations thus were laid for the cordial relations which ever since have existed between Japan and the nations of Christendom. Foreig

IMPERIAL TEMPLE, PEKING, CHINA

EMPEROR MUTSUHITO OF JAPAN

ideas and customs ever since have been adopted gradually by the Japanese, who are great imitators.

Europeanization of Japan.

Since 1868 the character of Japanese civilization has undergone a total change. The government, the army, the navy and the finances are administered on the European plan. The European dress is rapidly taking the place of the old Japanese costume, and many Japanese young men destined for the public service of their country are sent to the schools and colleges of Europe and the United States to be educated in the learning and civilization of the Christian world. In all these measures the young Mikado MUTSUHITO, who ascended the Japanese throne in 1867, has taken an active part; and he has sought constantly to promote the civilization of his Empire and to render its intercourse with the United States and the European powers more intimate.

The Mikado Mutsuhito.

Abolition of the Feudal System of Japan.

The changes which occurred in the Japanese government since 1868 have been very rapid. In 1871 the Mikado abolished the titles of *kuge* and *daimio*, or court and imperial noble, and replaced them with that of *kuazoku*, or noble families. This decree deprived the great Japanese nobles of their territorial fiefs, which were reclaimed by the crown, thus destroying the feudal system of Japan at one blow. In the same year the Mikado removed his capital from the old sacred city of Kioto to the great city of Yeddo, the name of which was changed to *Tokio*, meaning "Western capital." The Mikado granted to the daimios one-tenth of their former incomes on condition of residing permanently at Tokio.

Yeddo, or Tokio, the Capital.

Japanese Embassy.

In December, 1871, Japan sent an embassy to Europe and the United States. This embassy visited each of the Western nations in succession and negotiated new treaties of commerce and friendship with them. The embassy returned to Japan in September, 1873.

Japan's Dispute with China in 1874.

In 1874 Japan sent an expedition to the island of Formosa to chastise the natives for their outrages upon Japanese sailors wrecked on their shores. This expedition was successful, but involved Japan in a dispute with China, which claimed Formosa as one of her dependencies. War was threatened, but the firmness of the Japanese ambassadors induced China to enter into a treaty with Japan and to make reparation to that power for her losses.

Exchange with Russia.

In July, 1875, Japan ceded the island of Saghalien to Russia in exchange for the Kurile Islands. In 1876 a long standing quarrel with Korea was settled upon terms favorable to Japan. In the same year Japan took part in the Centennial International Exhibition at Philadelphia, where that Oriental empire gave satisfactory evidence of its success in the new national career upon which it so recently had entered.

Japan in the Centennial.

Conservative Party.

In the meantime Japan had been making great progress in the adoption of Western civilization, but there still was a conservative party which adhered to the old traditions. In 1877 a formidable rebellion

Rebellion of 1877.

headed by the daimio Saigo broke out at Satsuma and Choshiu to check the Europeanizing of Japan, but the rebellion was crushed after desperate fighting. Among great Japanese, Count Saigo, Minister of

Eminent Japanese.

Marine and Admiral of the Fleet, and Generals Oyama, Kawakami and Kabayama are from Satsuma, while Field-Marshal Yamagata, Count Ito, the Premier, and Count Inouye, the other Chief Minister, are from Choshiu.

Japan's Constitution and Transformation.

In February, 1889, Japan adopted a new constitution, giving the Empire two legislative Chambers and a Ministry; thus making it a constitutional monarchy and modeling its government upon that of Great Britain. On account of the wonderful and peaceful progress in recent times by which Japan has turned her back upon the past and taken her place among the most enlightened nations of the world, that Oriental nation has been called the "England of the East."

SECTION III.—THE CHINO-JAPANESE WAR (A. D. 1894–1895).

Chino-Japanese War and Result.

The old rivalry between Japan, the representative of Western civilization in the Far East, and China, the champion of the old civilization of Fohi and Confucius, broke out into a fierce and bloody war during the summer of 1894—a war which lasted about nine months and which was characterized by uninterrupted victory on the side of Japan, with her forty million people, and the utter humiliation of China, with her four hundred million population.

Collisions of the Mikado with His Parliament.

In the course of time, for many years past the position of the Mikado's government, face to face with an intractable Parliamentary opposition, had been extremely difficult. The lower chamber, or popular branch of the Japanese Parliament, frequently had refused to vote supplies, and the Mikado and his Ministry repeatedly had been obliged to strain their constitutional powers. A particularly acute crisis in December, 1893, and January, 1894, was ended by a dissolution of Parliament; but a general election in April, 1894, left the Mikado and his Cabinet at the mercy of their opponents, who suffered but slight loss in the elections. In this emergency the Mikado and his Ministers resolved to gain popularity and strength by the old device of resorting to foreign war.

In May, 1894, a month after the general elections, public opinion in Japan was excited intensely by the murder of a Korean rebel poli-

tician at Shanghai, China, with Chinese connivance. The murdered Korean rebel's intrigues in his own country had been favored and fostered by Japan. In June, 1894, a month later, rebellion broke out in the Kingdom of Korea; and the Chinese Emperor, as suzerain of the little kingdom, undertook the suppression of the rebellion in his tributary kingdom. About the same time the Japanese Parliament was again dissolved, and the Mikado and his Ministers found themselves with a free hand and a considerable support of public sentiment behind them. In July, 1894, Japan sent troops to Korea, and Japanese warships were in Korean waters. The Korean port of Chemulpo was occupied by a Japanese garrison; and Seoul, the Korean capital, was garrisoned by six thousand Japanese troops. Thus a state of war between the Empires of China and Japan actually existed by the close of July, 1894.

Korean Rebellion against China.

Japan's Aid to Korea.

The Chinese Emperor resolved to sustain his suzerainty over the Kingdom of Korea, which had been tributary to China for several centuries. This Chinese supremacy over Korea always had been a source of rivalry between China and Japan; and in 1874, twenty years before the recent war, a war was threatened between the two great Oriental empires, but finally was averted by diplomacy and by the mediation of the great European powers, which exerted their good offices to prevent the kindling of the flames of conflict in Eastern Asia, and peace was preserved for a score of years longer.

Chino-Japanese Rivalry over Korea.

Early in July, 1894, Japan summoned the King of Korea to relinquish the suzerainty of China, to declare independence of China, to accept Japanese protection and to dismiss the Chinese Resident. Three thousand more Japanese troops were sent to Seoul. Japan then had ten thousand troops in Korea, consisting of infantry, cavalry and artillery. Li Hung Chang sent twenty battalions of Chinese troops by sea to Korea to oppose the Japanese. Russia and Great Britain endeavored to mediate between the two great Oriental powers for the preservation of peace, Russia urging both China and Japan to withdraw their troops from Korea.

Japan's Demands on Korea.

Chinese and Japanese Troops in Korea.

Civil war actually had broken out in Korea about the middle of May, 1894. The rebels against the Korean king had possession of one entire province. Korea had been distracted by insurrections of the Tonghak, a reform party, for three years. In July a number of Christians were massacred.

Civil War in Korea.

Japan continued her warlike preparations. Japanese pickets and detachments were posted along the great northern road from China and held the principal pass, Ping Yang, in force. The Chinese troops remained where they were landed originally, near the seat of the recent Korean rising, sixty miles south of Chemulpo.

The Rival Armies.

More Japanese Demands on Korea.

The Japanese Minister now made further demands upon the Korean king, including the reform of civil government, the development of the resources of the country, including railway and telegraph concessions and the employment of Japanese capital in industry, and reform in the military system, providing for internal and external security. The Japanese Minister also required the Korean king to abjure his allegiance to China. The Japanese government refused to withdraw its troops from Korea.

Korean Defeat by Japanese.

Chinese Troops in Korea.

On July 24, 1894, the Korean troops, instigated by the Chinese Resident, attacked the Japanese garrison at the palace of Seoul, but were defeated after spirited fighting. The six thousand Korean troops at Seoul were armed with several Gatling guns. Twelve thousand Chinese troops despatched from China in Chinese transports effected a landing in Korea. Li Hung Chang had thirty thousand troops in his camp at Tien-tsin. The Japanese captured the King of Korea, July 23d.

Chinese Transport Sunk by Japanese Cruiser.

On July 25, 1894, the Japanese cruiser *Naniwa* sunk the Chinese transport *Kowshing* with thirteen hundred Chinese soldiers on board, in Korean waters, about forty miles off Chemulpo, thus creating a profound sensation throughout the civilized world.' Captain von Hanneken, the commander of the *Kowshing*, escaped miraculously and arrived at Chemulpo, July 28th, in a Korean fishing boat; and one hundred and fifty of the Chinese soldiers on board the *Kowshing* reached a rock, but over a thousand perished in the waters with the sunken vessel. The Japanese vessel continued discharging broadsides into the *Kowshing* and fired upon the Chinese troops struggling in the water. The Chinese vessel fired to the last and went down with her colors flying. Some of the Chinese fired upon their own people, who tried to escape with their lives by swimming, determined that all should die together.

Japan's Apology to Great Britain.

The Japanese government, upon being informed that the *Kowshing* was a British vessel chartered by the Chinese government to carry troops, at once spontaneously apologized to the British Charge d'Affaires; and the Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs declared that if, after thorough investigation, the Japanese were found to be in the wrong the Japanese government was prepared to make full reparation.

Japanese Victories over the Chinese.

On July 29, 1894, the Japanese under General Oshima gained a decisive victory over twenty-eight hundred Chinese at Chanhon, capturing the Chinese intrenchments; the Chinese losing over five hundred men killed and wounded, and the Japanese only seventy-five. A few days later the Chinese under General Yeh were routed with the loss of five hundred killed and wounded, thus giving the Japanese possession of Seikwan and Asan, or Yashan.

China's Preparations.

The Emperor of China issued an edict bidding his troops to "rout these pestilent Japanese out of their lairs," and Li Hung Chang declared that China would fight to the bitter end. The Chinese placed an order in Germany for four torpedo-boats, and Chinese agents ordered twenty-five thousand army rifles from New England manufacturers.

Japan's Declaration of War.

On August 1, 1894, the Japanese government declared to the foreign ambassadors and Ministers at Tokio that a state of war existed between Japan and China. The Japanese army and navy reserves were called out. The Chinese residents in Japan were fleeing in great numbers. Japan and China issued formal declarations of war against each other.

Riotous Soldiery on Both Sides.

In the meantime a Chinese army of twenty thousand men marched into Korea from Manchuria. The Japanese attacked and maltreated Chinese residents at Kobe, and the Chinese at Taku openly insulted members of the Japanese embassy returning from Pekin. Li Hung Chang sent a personal message to the Japanese Minister regretting that the Chinese soldiery so far forgot themselves. The riotous soldiers were punished. Japanese residents in China were mobbed, but the police tried to protect them.

Rival Armies in Korea.

On August 11, 1894, a large Japanese fleet exchanged a few shots with the Chinese forts on the Straits of Pechili. Both China and Japan were sending reinforcements to their armies in Korea. Twenty thousand Japanese were marching on Seoul. On August 17, 1894, the Chinese under General Tio attacked and routed Japanese detachments at Ping Yang and the next day at Chungho. On September 6th a large body of Chinese cavalry were routed by the Japanese, who captured the Chinese intrenchments and a quantity of stores and ammunition; the Chinese retreating to Ping Yang, after losing over four hundred killed and wounded, and the Japanese losing less than one hundred. The Koreans routed two thousand Japanese marching on Seoul, with a loss of twelve hundred men. On September 13th a Japanese column from Pong-San, making a reconnaissance in force, was fired upon by the Chinese forts.

Chinese Victories.

Japanese Victory.

Korean Victory over Japanese.

Battle of Ping Yang.

Field-Marshal Yamagata prepared to reduce Ping Yang; and at dawn on September 15, 1894, the Japanese opened a cannonade upon the Chinese fortifications. In the afternoon the Japanese infantry took part in the fight. The Chinese replied vigorously to the Japanese fire. The firing was renewed at intervals during the night. Before daybreak, Sunday, September 16, 1894, the Japanese renewed their attacks, assailing the Chinese intrenchments in front and rear in three columns, sixty thousand strong. The unsuspecting Chinese were taken utterly unawares and fell into a panic, being completely surrounded by their foes and cut down by hundreds. After half an hour's

fight, this night attack gave the Japanese possession of Ping Yang. Of the twenty thousand Chinamen defending Ping Yang very few escaped death or capture. Whole regiments surrendered after the retreat of a detachment of two thousand panic-stricken Chinese had been cut off. The Chinese loss in killed, wounded and prisoners was seventeen thousand. General Tso Fonk Wai, commander of the Chinese Manchurian army, was wounded mortally and captured. The Chinese Generals Tsa Paok Woi, Wei Jink Woi and Sei Kinlin also were taken prisoners. The Japanese lost over seven hundred killed and wounded. The battle was decisive and the Japanese victory was complete. They captured all the Chinese stores, provisions, arms and ammunition and hundreds of colors. Field-Marshal Yamagata telegraphed the news of his victory to the Mikado at Hiroshima and was congratulated by His Majesty. Field-Marshal Yamagata issued an address to his troops, commending them for their bravery.

Naval Battle of the Yalu River.

On Sunday, September 16, 1894, while the Chinese army was annihilated at Ping Yang, the Chinese fleet of eighteen vessels was attacked at the mouth of the Yalu river, while covering the landing of troops. These troops comprised the Second Chinese Army Corps, consisting entirely of Hunanese. Before the Chinese transports had landed all the troops the Japanese fleet of thirteen ships attacked them. The Chinese battleships *Chih-Yuen* and *King-Yuen* were blown up and sunk by torpedoes, after fighting desperately. The Chinese steel cruisers *Chao-Yung* and *Yang-Wei* were driven ashore and set on fire by Japanese shells and burned. The Chinese warship *Chen-Yuen* and the flagship *Ting-Yuen* were damaged seriously. Three Japanese cruisers *Matsusima* and *Yoshino* and the Japanese transport *Saikiomaru* were damaged badly. The fighting was desperate on both sides. The Chinese loss in killed and wounded was about fifteen hundred men. Among the wounded were Admiral Ting and Captain von Hanneken. The Japanese also lost heavily in killed and wounded.

Li Hung Chang's Disgrace.

In the meantime the Viceroy Li Hung Chang was disgraced officially by the Chinese Emperor, through the instrumentality of the Tsung-li-Yamen, or Foreign Office of the Celestial Empire, making him responsible for the disasters to the Chinese arms in Korea, thus making him the scapegoat for its blunders.

Formidable Japanese Invasion of Korea.

In the meantime thirty-two Japanese transports had arrived at Chemulpo, convoyed thither by the Japanese fleet, bringing seven thousand Japanese troops, three thousand coolies, two thousand pack horses, pontoons and mountain guns. The Japanese government decided to follow up its victories and to prosecute the war with all possible vigor before the opening of winter. A second Japanese army, thirty thousand strong, was mobilized at Hiroshima, under the command of Count

Oyama, the Japanese Minister of War. The national enthusiasm over the recent Japanese victories in Korea was unbounded. The war loan, which was raised entirely in Japan, was subscribed three times over. The Empress, as chief patroness of the Japanese Red Cross Society, personally set the example of preparing lint and bandages for the wounded, in which humane work Her Majesty was supported actively by all the ladies of the Japanese court, whose handiwork was to be distributed between the wounded Japanese and Chinese soldiers without distinction. The Japanese Parliament was convened for an extraordinary session at Hiroshima on October 15, 1894.

Japanese Enthusiasm.

The Chinese rapidly fortified the city of Moukden, the capital of the Chinese dependency of Manchuria, where the Chinese Emperor was believed to have had twelve hundred million dollars of treasure, accumulated in the course of two centuries. Thousands of Chinese soldiers were poured into the city to defend it at all hazards against any force which General Kawakami, the generalissimo of the Japanese armies, might send against it. The naval battle in the Yalu river practically annihilated the naval power of China, and, in connection with the land battle of Ping Yang, virtually placed the Celestial Empire at the mercy of the triumphant army and navy of Japan.

Chinese Fortification of Moukden.

China's Weakness.

The remnant of the vanquished Chinese army, in its flight from the disastrous field of Ping Yang, acted the part of bandits and robbers, pillaging and burning villages, destroying farms and burning the stored produce, also massacring the natives who resisted these outrageous acts.

Chinese Pillage.

An imperial decree in China appointed Prince Kung, the Emperor's uncle, and the Presidents of the Tsung-li-Yamen and of the Admiralty as a special committee to conduct the military operations. This decree was suggested by Li Hung Chang and was supported vigorously by the Empress-Dowager. The news that the imperial treasure and the dynastic archives at Moukden had been removed to a safer place inland produced a bad effect at Pekin.

China's Preparations.

An imperial decree in China assigned General Sung to the command of the Pei-Yang Army Corps in Manchuria and also to the command of the Manchu militia, except the Kirin division, which was left under the command of the Tartar general. The other Chinese generals were ordered to obey General Sung on pain of death.

The Chinese General Sung.

The Chinese Emperor and his Councilors were in a state of alternate terror and indignation at the possibility of a Japanese invasion. The Emperor declared that the recent defeats could have been caused by incompetence and corruption only, and the enemies of Li Hung Chang sedulously encouraged this mood of the Emperor. The disorganization of the Chinese military affairs was appalling, and the corruption

Chaos, Corruption and Dismay in China.

of the Chinese officials was astounding. There was no clothing and only scanty food for the Chinese troops. Guns, rifles and ammunition which had been bought and paid for could neither be found nor traced. Chaos and terror prevailed everywhere. The great Chinese camp between Tien-tsin and Taku was filled with raw levies. Disorders were rampant, and the daily beheadings of delinquents did not produce any improvement in discipline. There were no rifles or muskets for these troops.

Anti-Foreign Feeling in China.

No foreigners ventured near the Chinese camp unless they were guarded sufficiently. Most Europeans went to the coast towns, where they were under the protection of the warships of their respective nations. Foreigners were menaced with violence constantly, and the authorities were unable to keep the mobs in check. All the European women and children in Hankow were sent to Shanghai for safety. The European men, traders and officials alike, formed a volunteer corps to defend their lives and property. The native hostility to foreigners was growing stronger daily. Many Chinese merchants also migrated to the coast towns, as they felt more secure near foreigners than with their own countrymen. The Viceroys feared that the mobs would break out into armed rebellion; and fortifications were thrown up at Woo-chang, opposite Hankow, in anticipation of a serious attack upon the city. The European powers acted in accord for the protection of their subjects in China. Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Russia and the United States reinforced their squadrons in Chinese waters.

Cheng's Disgrace.

Cheng, nephew of Li Hung Chang and the chief magistrate of Tien-tsin, was disgraced officially after an investigation conducted by Li Hung Chang himself, revealing the fact that Cheng had bought three hundred thousand obsolete rifles from German agents for two taels each, while he charged the imperial treasury nine taels each for them. The cartridges were of inferior quality and of various patterns, and Cheng made a large profit from them also. Li Hung Chang sent for his nephew, who did not deny his guilt. Li Hung Chang ended a strong interview by slapping his nephew's face, and Cheng was removed from his position at once.

Japanese Spies.

In the meantime Japanese spies were detected in China and were arrested, tried, convicted and beheaded. These spies were discovered cutting telegraph wires and laying torpedoes along the coast.

Action of the Japanese Parliament.

The Japanese Parliament was convened in extraordinary session, October 15, 1894, at Hiroshima, where the Mikado established his headquarters, and remained in session one week, during which it authorized war loans amounting to one hundred million yen and a total war ex-

penditure of one hundred and fifty million yen. Count Ito, the Japanese Premier, addressed both Houses.

Japanese Victories.

The Japanese occupied Wi-ju, October 8, 1894, after a slight encounter with the Chinese, who fled precipitately after a feeble resistance and crossed the Yalu river, after losing about a hundred men out of a force of two thousand. The Japanese advanced steadily on Port Arthur, in the peninsula of Liao-tung, and a Japanese force invaded Manchuria from Korea. A Japanese detachment of sixteen hundred men which crossed the Yalu river above Wi-ju captured a Chinese intrenchment after brief fighting, the Chinese losing twenty killed and wounded and the Japanese none, October 24, 1894. The next day the Japanese gained a signal victory at Hoosan, near Kiu-lien-tcheng, after three hours' fighting. The Chinese force, numbering thirty-five hundred men, was routed utterly and scattered, with the loss of over two hundred killed, while the Japanese lost a little over a hundred killed and wounded. Before dawn on October 26th the Japanese army under Field-Marshal Yamagata attacked sixteen thousand Chinese under General Sung at Kiu-lien-tcheng. The Chinese fled; and the victorious Japanese next captured Andong with twenty cannon, besides rifles and ammunition.

Disgrace of Two Chinese Generals.

A Chinese court-martial convicted Generals Yeh and Wei of cowardice and neglect of duty in retreating from Ping Yang without justification, thereby leaving General Tso and his Kirin troops alone to fight the Japanese armies; and both generals were degraded from military rank and deprived of honors, for their cowardice. General Wei was beheaded afterward.

Prince Kung's Appeal and Offers of European Mediation.

In the meantime the Great European Powers made efforts to bring about peace. Their Ministers in China met the Tsung-li-Yamen on November 3, 1894, to hear what the Chinese government had to say respecting the critical Chinese situation. Prince Kung calmly and frankly avowed China's impotence and her inability to withstand the Japanese attack, and he appealed to the Powers to intervene for peace. He stated that China was willing to relinquish her suzerainty over Korea and to pay a war indemnity. The foreign Ministers promised to use their influence in procuring the mediation of their respective governments in favor of peace. The United States also endeavored to mediate.

Japan's Defiant Attitude.

The dream of the Japanese nation, flushed with victory, was the complete submission of China to any terms which Japan chose to dictate. The Japanese were so intoxicated with their successes that they now considered themselves invincible and powerful enough to defy any interference from any or all of the European Powers.

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Japanese Successes in Manchuria.

The Japanese entered Feng-huang-tcheng on October 31, 1894, the Chinese having fled, their generals going to Moukden. The inhabitants of the captured town, hating the violence and rapacity of the Chinese, welcomed the Japanese army. Thus the Chinese defense of Moukden collapsed; and the Japanese invaders marched westward, though cold weather had set in and snow had fallen in Manchuria. The Japanese here took no prisoners, but they disarmed and dispersed the Chinese soldiers wherever found. By Field-Marshal Yamagata's orders, the peaceable inhabitants were treated with the utmost consideration, all food purchased being paid for at a recognized scale, and laborers being paid daily for any extra help required; the result of which was that the Japanese camp was thronged with Chinese peasants offering produce, while more Chinese laborers were asking for work than could be accommodated. The Chinese there welcomed the Japanese with open arms. The Japanese reputation for humanity in paying for supplies did the Japanese immense service; and their conduct was contrasted with that of the Chinese troops, who made war in the ancient style and were dreaded by the people and officials alike in victory and in defeat.

Siege of Port Arthur.

A Japanese army of forty thousand men under Marshal Oyama left Hiroshimo and landed on Chinese territory in the peninsula of Liaotung without meeting any opposition, captured fifteen timber-laden Chinese junks, blockaded Port Arthur and Ta-lien-wan, completely invested Port Arthur before the end of October, captured one of the forts at Port Arthur and defeated the Chinese in a spirited engagement. The Chinese troops at Port Arthur, Kinchou and Talienwan numbered thirteen thousand men. The Chinese situation at Port Arthur now was extremely critical, and the Chinese Pe-Yang squadron in the port was caught in a trap. Early in November the Japanese established a complete cordon around Port Arthur and captured the two outermost forts on the land side.

Japanese Victories.

The Japanese took Kinchou and Ta-lien-wan on November 8, 1894, the Chinese garrisons offering little resistance and fleeing in the direction of Port Arthur. Two thousand Chinese troops under General Shui were overpowered by the Japanese east of Kinchou on the same day, after two days' fighting. The next day the Japanese routed the Chinese at Namquan Pass, twenty-five miles from Port Arthur. At Ta-lien-wan the Japanese captured eighty cannon, large stores of ammunition and one steamer.

More Japanese Successes.

Field-Marshal Yamagata continued his victorious march in Manchuria, his various divisions defeating the Chinese detachments in several engagements. The defeated Chinese troops suffered from cold

and hunger. Field-Marshal Yamagata sent a brigade under General Osako to disperse six thousand Chinese troops under General Ma at Siu-Yen, but the Chinese fled on Sunday night, November 18, 1894, without offering any resistance, and the Japanese quietly occupied Siu-Yen and took possession of the five cannon which the Chinese had abandoned in their flight. The Chinese retreated toward Hai-tcheng.

Japanese Victories near Port Arthur.

The second Japanese army under Marshal Oyama marched toward Port Arthur in two divisions by different routes. On November 19, 1894, a Chinese force strongly intrenched in the passes north of Port Arthur was attacked, and, after desperate fighting, was driven from its intrenchments, fleeing to Port Arthur. Both sides suffered severe losses. On the same day the Japanese captured a fort two miles west of Port Arthur. The next day the right division of Marshal Oyama's army had a skirmish with the Chinese, who retired in good order. The same division captured the fort and village of Shui-sy-Ching.

Capture of a Redoubt at Port Arthur.

The next morning the right division carried the low range of hills north-west of Port Arthur with a rush and then cannonaded and bombarded a strong redoubt a thousand yards distant. The Chinese garrison returned the fire briskly; but the Japanese infantry advanced in the face of a well-directed shell fire without faltering, and before nine o'clock they carried the redoubt by storm in the most gallant style. The Chinese resisted fiercely for several minutes and then fled toward the dockyard.

Capture of Forts at Port Arthur.

In the meantime the left division of Marshal Oyama's army had been engaged fiercely with the Chinese on the south-east side of Port Arthur. After advancing over the hills this division was raked by a heavy fire from three forts connected by trenches strongly held, and a heavy duel ensued between the Japanese artillery and the heavy Chinese cannon in the forts, while the Japanese infantry meanwhile advanced all along the line, taking advantage of the brushwood and other cover. The forts finally were carried by assault, the Chinese garrisons being driven from the three forts after making the most gallant defense.

Capture of Port Arthur.

By evening of the same day, November 21, 1894, Port Arthur was in the possession of the Japanese; but the Chinese still held ten redoubts on the coast line, armed with about twenty cannon. Early on the morning of the 23d (November, 1894) these works were captured by the Japanese without serious loss on their part. Twenty-three Japanese torpedo-boats suddenly rushed through the entrance to Port Arthur, thus surprising the Chinese and distracting their attention while the land attack was being delivered.

The Spoils of Victory.

Thus the Japanese captured Port Arthur after several days of continuous fighting. They found eighty cannon and mortars in the cap-

tured forts and redoubts and many more in the dockyards. They also obtained possession of an immense quantity of ammunition, besides completely-equipped torpedo stores and large quantities of rice and beans. All the Chinese vessels, factories and docks were taken intact and were ready for use. The Chinese forces at Port Arthur numbered about twenty thousand men and lost more than a thousand men, while the Japanese lost about two hundred and fifty killed and wounded. Most of the Chinese escaped from Port Arthur on the night of November 21st.

Japanese Reprisals.

In revenge for the mutilation and decapitation of a number of Japanese prisoners in the hands of the Chinese, the triumphant Japanese troops gave no quarter to their vanquished foes during the storming of the defenses of Port Arthur and shot many Chinese soldiers who attempted to escape. The Japanese also pillaged the town and killed nearly every man in it. They also committed atrocities on Chinese prisoners, who were pinioned, stripped, shot, hacked with knives, disemboweled and dismembered.

Japanese Victory near Moukden.

The capture of Port Arthur was followed by a victory of the Japanese arms in Manchuria. The first Japanese army under Field-Marshal Yamagata, in its advance in that Chinese dependency, defeated the Chinese near Mo-thieu-ling. The Japanese lost about forty killed and wounded, while the Chinese lost over two hundred. Moukden was evacuated by the foreign residents early in November. The city was deserted by its inhabitants also, and for miles around the ground was covered with broken household furniture and articles of clothing. All the treasure also had been removed. The country traversed by the Chinese army was stripped of its vegetation and resembled fields ravaged by locusts.

Li Hung Chang's Disgrace.

Over two hundred Chinese mandarins signed a memorial charging Li Hung Chang with corruption, peculation and treason and demanding his instant punishment. Accordingly an imperial edict was issued depriving him of his rank and all his titles, but allowing him to retain his office of Viceroy.

China Sues for Peace.

The fall of Port Arthur and the advance of the Japanese in Manchuria made the Chinese government exceedingly anxious for peace, and a customs officer in the employ of China was in Japan for the purpose of opening peace negotiations; but Count Ito, the Japanese Prime Minister, refused him an audience or to receive any communication from him, as the sending of a subordinate official was regarded as little less than an insult on the part of the Chinese government. Japan was ready to accept peace proposals if put forward by a properly-

accredited envoy and not by a mere messenger sent by a Chinese Viceroy. The only credentials of Detring, the messenger, were a letter from Li Hung Chang to Count Ito. China intimated her intention to offer a war indemnity of one hundred million taels and to pay Japan's war expenses as one of the conditions of peace.

Japanese Regret for the Atrocities at Port Arthur.

The Japanese authorities expressed great sorrow for the atrocities of their troops at the capture of Port Arthur and instituted an official inquiry. It appeared that the Japanese soldiers who committed the atrocities had been frenzied by intoxicating drinks which they had captured from the Chinese. These atrocities were an exception to the conduct of the Japanese during the war.

Japanese Victory.

On December 10, 1894, the Japanese division under General Techimi defeated over three thousand Chinese near Kinhuahu, the Chinese fleeing in great disorder after a sanguinary struggle. The Japanese loss was forty killed and wounded. The Chinese left about a hundred dead upon the field. The Japanese advanced in force upon Tso-hun-kou.

Capture of Fouchou and Hong-kaputz.

A brigade of Marshal Oyama's army took Fouchou from the Chinese without encountering any opposition and advanced rapidly towards Niu Chwang. The first Japanese army had considerable fighting in its advance through Manchuria in the middle of December, 1894. On December 11th, General Osako's brigade, after several days' slow advance and occasional skirmishing, made a dashing attack upon Hung-kaputz, where the Chinese had concentrated their forces. The Chinese line was broken and the Chinese troops fled in disorder, abandoning all their heavy war material. Some fled northward toward Hai-tcheng and others westward in the direction of Yingkow.

Capture of Si-mu-tcheng and Hai-tcheng.

The third division of the left wing of the first Japanese army attacked Si-mu-tcheng, December 12, 1894, and drove the Chinese from the place. The left wing effected a junction with General Osako's brigade the same day, and the combined forces marched upon Hai-tcheng, which was garrisoned by about five thousand Chinese troops. The Japanese attacked the place the next day, and the greater part of the Chinese at once fled, while the fifteen hundred who resisted were routed after a severe engagement, and the Japanese immediately occupied the town.

More Japanese Victories.

On the same day a Japanese force repulsed several attacks by five thousand Chinese at Yih-man-shan, five miles from Feng-huang-tcheng. The next day the Japanese attacked the Chinese left flank and routed it after a severe struggle, driving it in disorderly retreat by a second charge, the Chinese losing about four hundred killed and wounded, while the Japanese lost about eighty.

Prince Kung and Li Hung Chang.

Prince Kung now was appointed President of the Grand Council of the Chinese Empire, thus making him virtual dictator. Li Hung Chang's position at Tien-tsin was established firmly. The Empress-Dowager gave emphatic assurances of her confidence in him, and the Chinese court found him indispensable, as he was the only capable man, the others having proven useless.

Japan's Reply to China.

The Japanese government intimated that the overtures of China for peace through the United States Ministers at Tokio and Pekin were futile, as Japan did not believe in China's sincerity; and Japan intimated further that China must sue for peace directly.

Japanese Investigation of the Port Arthur Excesses.

The Japanese authorities made a strict official inquiry into the excesses committed by the Japanese troops upon the capture of Port Arthur. It was found that the reports of the cruelties of the Japanese were true, but that, besides the mutilated bodies of captured Japanese soldiers, the Japanese, on entering the town, found many heads of Japanese soldiers stuck upon poles erected over or in front of the residences of civilians resident in the town. The Japanese officials at Port Arthur adopted stringent regulations for the protection of the inhabitants who returned to their homes, also furnishing food to many of them.

Battle of Kungwasai.

On December 19, 1894, the Japanese force under General Katsura attacked ten thousand Chinese under General Sung at the village of Kungwasai, about eight miles from Hai-tcheng, and a severe fight followed. General Osako's brigade was the first to engage. Meanwhile the Japanese were reinforced by General Oshima's brigade from Hai-tcheng. The Japanese artillery played havoc in the Chinese ranks. The Japanese infantry cut their way through the Chinese ranks, but the Chinese rallied and stubbornly held their ground. Thrice the Japanese dashed through the Chinese lines, and after five hours' desperate hand-to-hand fighting the Chinese began to falter and were in full and disorderly flight, while the Japanese occupied the village of Kungwasai. The Chinese lost about nine hundred killed and wounded, while the Japanese lost four hundred and fifty. A division of the second Japanese army under Lieutenant-General Baron Yamagi entered Kai-chou, or Kai-phing, without resistance, December 18, 1894.

New Chinese Commander-in-chief.

Lin-kun-yi, late Viceroy of Nankin, was appointed to the chief command of all the Chinese armies in the field, superseding both Prince Kung and Li Hung Chang. He immediately petitioned to be relieved on account of indisposition, but his request was refused. The Governor of Shantung sent a memorial to the Chinese court, bringing further grave charges of cowardice, negligence and incompetence against several high officials, including Admiral Ting and General Wei. These

Charges against Chinese Officials.

accusations were supported by fresh evidence, and an imperial decree ordered the immediate arrest and punishment of the accused.

Censor Banished.

A censor who had the temerity to charge the Empress-Dowager of China with exercising undue influence in matters of state entirely beyond her capacity to understand was condemned to perpetual banishment.

American Mediation.

John W. Foster, Secretary of State in President Harrison's administration in the United States, agreed to go to Japan to aid the Chinese plenipotentiaries to negotiate peace, in accordance with a request from the Chinese government to President Cleveland's administration.

Japanese Victories over Korean Rebels.

Japanese marines under Tsukuba Kan landed in the province of Chollado, in the south-west of Korea, and dispersed the Tonghak rebels, who had founded a new kingdom, styling it the Kingdom of Kainan and installing a member of the Nieng family as king. A Japanese detachment defeated and dispersed more than six thousand Tonghak rebels in the province of Whang-hai-do-met, after four hours' fighting, December 23, 1894.

Chinese Peace Envoys.

Mr. Detring, who had been appointed peace envoy to Japan by Li Hung Chang, was recalled by a telegram from Prince Kung, whose action was prompted by the American Minister at Pekin. In the latter part of December, 1894, Chang-yin-houan, the Vice-President of the Tsung-li-Yamen, was appointed envoy; and the Japanese government promised to receive him with an honest desire to help him in his peaceful mission.

Korea's Independence Proclaimed.

The independence of Korea was proclaimed solemnly at Seoul, January 7, 1895. In the forenoon the king and his Cabinet, with civil and military dignitaries and officers of the royal household, proceeded to the Temple of the king's ancestors and there declared that thenceforth Korea would be independent of every other country. The ceremony was a striking one. The Korean soldiers of His Majesty's escort wore uniforms fashioned in the modern Japanese style. Ministers Bokuyeiko and Yokohan were guarded specially by Japanese policemen, but the streets were guarded entirely by the newly-formed native Korean police, who performed their duties well. Everything went on smoothly at Seoul, and the Koreans seemed quite reconciled to the presence of the Japanese and disposed to follow their advice. Several Tonghak leaders were captured and beheaded near Sunchou; and the Korean soldiers dispersed the rebels, who were disheartened by the death of their leaders.

Chinese Excesses in Manchuria.

The Chinese under General Sung retreated from Niu Chwang after severe fighting on December 22, 1894, but on Christmas day General Sung marched back and reoccupied Niu Chwang without opposition.

The Japanese soldiers in Manchuria suffered intensely from the cold. A state of anarchy prevailed at Moukden, where the Chinese and Manchu soldiers frequently fought each other; and the populace were outraged and plundered by both, who killed every civilian who dared to offer the least resistance to the brutal soldiery. Twelve thousand more Chinese troops were sent to the Manchurian capital. A Chinese force under General Nieh between Hao-cha-fang and Shi-hao-tsu harried the district as though it were an enemy's country, all able-bodied Manchurians being pressed into the Chinese military service and every village being ransacked for arms, the Chinese soldiers paying for nothing.

Chinese Peace Envoys in Japan.

Chang-yin-houan, the Chinese peace envoy, proceeded to Japan and afterwards was joined by the other Chinese envoys in the peace negotiations. John W. Foster, the American ex-Secretary of State, left Victoria, British Columbia, for Japan to assist the Chinese envoys. Li Hung Chang handed General Wei over to the Board of Punishment at Pekin, as there was a disposition to hold the Viceroy himself responsible for the accused general's cowardice and incapacity. The Board of Punishment found General Wei guilty of cowardice, extortion and plundering; and soon afterward he was beheaded at Pekin.

General Wei Beheaded.

Disorders in Shantung and Pechili.

Disturbances occurred in the Chinese provinces of Shantung and Pechili, and the government was endeavoring to repress disorder. Two detachments of Mohammedan cavalry, five thousand each, arrived at Tien-tsin early in January, 1895. These men were fanatics and swore to avenge the death of their chief, killed at Ping Yang.

Desolation in Manchuria.

The Manchu princes took the defense of their country into their own hands, having been thwarted hitherto by the Chinese officials, a disagreement which paralyzed the executive and rendered the central government bewildered and helpless. The district between the rivers Yalu and Liao, in Manchuria, presented one ghastly scene of desolation, reducing a populous region to a vast solitude. No houses were left standing, the very timbers being burned. Towns and villages were without a vestige of life, the entire populations having perished. Only scattered groups of frozen corpses were seen, while neither food nor fuel could be procured. The stragglers from the Chinese army who sought refuge in the hills and forests became savages and lost all human feeling. The sufferings of the wounded were terrible.

Battle of Kai-phing.

A brigade of the second Japanese army, under General Nogi, in the midst of a deep snow, which hindered the movements of artillery, attacked four thousand Chinese under General Seh, who had fourteen cannon, at Kai-phing, January 10, 1895. After four hours' fighting, the Japanese infantry made successive charges on the right and left

flanks and the center of the Chinese, who were thrown into confusion and routed in headlong flight, leaving the Japanese in possession of the town. The Chinese lost two thousand killed and wounded, nearly half their force. General Neih narrowly escaped capture by the Japanese while fleeing from Kai-phing through Honmonzen in a carriage, his horse being killed and himself being wounded in the thigh. The Japanese loss in killed and wounded in this action was over three hundred.

More Japanese Successes.

The Japanese bombarded Teng-chou, north-west of the Shantung promontory, one whole day, January 19, 1895, dismounting many of the Chinese cannon and silencing the fire of the Chinese forts. The next day, Sunday, January 20, 1895, fifty Japanese transports appeared off Yung-tcheng Bay, south of the Shantung promontory, and landed twenty-five thousand Japanese troops, after three Japanese men-of-war had silenced the Chinese earthworks.

Situation at Wei-hai-wei and Chefoo.

Many Chinese warships were blockaded in the harbor of Wei-hai-wei, which was garrisoned by eleven thousand Chinese troops. The population of Chefoo were so excited by the near approach of the Japanese that sailors were landed from the British, German, French and American warships, and all the foreign consulates were guarded specially, while foreign blue jackets and marines patroled the European quarter of the city.

Chinese Repulses at Hai-tcheng.

On January 22, 1895, ten thousand Chinese attacked the Japanese at Hai-tcheng, but were repulsed, leaving one hundred dead upon the field, while the Japanese lost none killed and only twenty-eight wounded. On January 24th the Chinese renewed their attack on the Japanese at Hai-tcheng, but were repulsed again after a short engagement.

Japanese Repulses at Yung-tcheng and Wei-hai-wei.

On January 23, 1895, the Chinese repulsed an attack of the Japanese advance guard near Yung-tcheng. The Japanese also were repulsed in several attacks on Wei-hai-wei with considerable loss. On January 26th the Japanese fleet advanced in two divisions of nineteen ships on Wei-hai-wei, but was driven off by a fire from the Chinese fleet and shore batteries. The Chinese lost twenty-seven sailors. At the same time the Japanese army made an attack upon Wei-hai-wei from Ning-Hai, but was repulsed. In these attacks the Japanese lost over three hundred killed and wounded.

Capture of Wei-hai-wei.

On January 30, 1895, the Japanese captured all the southern forts at Wei-hai-wei, after a spirited resistance on the part of the Chinese garrisons and considerable loss on both sides, the Chinese evacuating the forts and retreating to Fung-lin-Chu. The Japanese attack had been made under cover of a severe bombardment from the Japanese fleet in the harbor. The next day the Japanese garrisons in the cap-

tured forts and the Japanese warships cannonaded and bombarded the Chinese fleet, finally driving back the Chinese war vessels. The Japanese entered Wei-hai-wei on February 2, 1895. On Sunday, February 3, 1895, the fortress island of Leu-kung-tau, in Wei-hai-wei harbor, was captured by the Japanese, after a severe bombardment from the Japanese fleet and the Japanese shore batteries on the mainland and a spirited resistance on the part of the Chinese garrison in the island forts. The loss was heavy on both sides, the Chinese losing about two thousand killed and wounded. A Japanese gunboat was sunk, and a magazine in one of the forts was blown up by the explosion of a shell from the Japanese. Japanese torpedo-boats entered Wei-hai-wei harbor and sunk the Chinese cruisers *Ting Yuen*, *Lai-Yeun* and *Chen Yeun* during the nights of February 4 and 5, 1895, and pursued and captured or destroyed thirteen Chinese torpedo-boats. Japanese marines and sailors landed on Leu-kun-tau island on February 6th, but were resisted obstinately by the Chinese, and desperate fighting followed. Admiral Ting surrendered the remaining Chinese war vessels and the Leu-kung-tau forts to Admiral Ito. Admiral Ting, General Chang and Captain Liu committed suicide. The Chinese soldiers and sailors just surrendered were liberated at once by the Japanese.

Chinese Peace Envoys in Japan.

The Chinese peace envoys, with Mr. Foster, their American adviser, arrived at Hiroshima, in Japan, January 31, 1895, and were refused an audience by Count Ito, the Japanese Prime Minister, on the ground that their plenary powers were utterly inadequate. As the Japanese government officially declined all further negotiations, the envoys left Hiroshima on February 4th. The text of the credentials given to the Chinese envoys empowered them to "meet and negotiate the matter with the plenipotentiaries of Japan," but directed them to "telegraph to the Tsung-li-Yamen for the purpose of obtaining our commands, by which you will abide."

Black Flags in Formosa.

The Black Flags committed ravages on the island of Formosa, and a British war vessel went thither from Hong Kong in response to a request from the British residents.

Foreign Ministers in China.

The foreign Ministers in China were received by the Emperor on the occasion of the Chinese New Year, February 14, 1895. The Ministers obtained certain ceremonial concessions, one of which was that they be admitted by the front gate of the imperial palace at Pekin. They afterward ordered guards from Tien-tsin for the protection of their respective legations.

Plot against China's Emperor.

A formidable conspiracy in Pekin against the Chinese Emperor and his government was discovered, the conspirators being members of a secret society called the *Thalli* and said to number fifty thousand

persons. Their plans for an outbreak had been almost completed when they were frustrated by the discovery of the plot and the arrest of the leaders.

Li Hung Chang's Peace Mission.

Li Hung Chang was restored to all his honors and was appointed Imperial Commissioner to negotiate for peace with Japan. China requested that the Japanese peace commissioners might meet Li Hung Chang at Port Arthur to conduct the negotiations there. The Japanese government declined absolutely to treat anywhere but on Japanese soil.

Capture of Niu Chwang and Yinkow.

The Japanese under General Nodzu attacked eighteen thousand Chinese, between the Liao Yang and Niu Chwang roads, with complete success, on Sunday, March 3, 1895; the Japanese losing ten men killed and about a hundred wounded, while the Chinese lost a hundred and fifty killed and about two hundred wounded. The Japanese captured Niu Chwang the next day, after desperate fighting, the fortifications being carried after a two hours' bombardment and the Chinese driven out after eleven hours' fighting. The Chinese lost nineteen hundred killed and five hundred prisoners. The Japanese lost over two hundred killed and wounded. On the same day an attack by ten thousand Chinese under General Sung on the Japanese positions at Taping-shan was repulsed without loss to the Japanese. Two days later a division of the second Japanese army captured Yinkow, the port of Niu Chwang, after severe fighting with the Chinese under General Sung, who lost several hundred killed and wounded, while the Japanese loss was small.

Japan's New War-ships.

The Chinese warships captured by the Japanese at Wei-hai-wei were taken to Yokohama by their Japanese crews. The Japanese abandoned Wei-hai-wei and the entire province of Shantung, after destroying the forts.

Battle of Thien-chuang-thai.

After the capture of Niu Chwang and Yinkow the first and second Japanese armies effected a junction; and a division of the first army attacked the Chinese under General Sung at Thien-chuang-thai, March 9, 1895, and gained a decided victory after three hours' hand-to-hand fighting in the streets, nearly two hundred Chinese being killed and wounded and six hundred taken prisoners, while eighteen cannon and a large quantity of rifles and ammunition were captured by the victorious Japanese. General Sung's army was broken up completely by his repeated reverses. The Mikado congratulated General Nodzu on his successes in Manchuria and promoted him to the rank of Field-Marshal. The Chinese held their ground in fighting near Kiu-lien-tcheng on March 18, 1895. Prince Komatsu, the Japanese commander-in-chief, was ordered to China.

Li Hung Chang's Peace Mission to Japan.

The Chinese government now reluctantly recognized the abandonment of a war policy as the only possible course in view of the uninterrupted disasters to the Chinese arms, and Li Hung Chang was sent to Japan as a peace envoy. China already had agreed to the points to be discussed at the peace conference, but instructed her Ministers in Great Britain, France, Germany and Russia to solicit the intervention of those powers for the protection of the integrity of China's continental territories in case Japan insisted on concessions on the mainland.

Attempt to Assassinate Li Hung Chang.

Li Hung Chang arrived at Shimonoseki, Japan, March 19, 1895, and was received by the Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs. On Sunday, March 24th, a dastardly attack was made upon the life of Li Hung Chang by a young Japanese, named Koyama Rukonosoki, who rushed from the crowd in the street, pistol in hand, and shot the distinguished Chinese statesman in the left cheek, while he was being conveyed to his hotel in his palaquin from a conference with the Japanese peace negotiators. The would-be-assassin was arrested on the spot. The strongest indignation was expressed by the native and foreign press in Japan. Special messages of sympathy and regret were sent to the wounded envoy from the Mikado and his Empress, and the Japanese Ministers of State and high government officials called at his residence. The Japanese Parliament adopted fitting resolutions of regret at the dastardly outrage, and the Mikado and his Ministry published in the *Official Gazette* a message condemning the horrid deed. General indignation at the attempted assassination prevailed throughout Japan. By the Mikado's command two eminent surgeons and physicians attended the wounded Chinese envoy, and the Empress of Japan sent two nurses to attend him. Li Hung Chang soon recovered from his wound. The would-be-assassin was tried for his dastardly crime and convicted and was sentenced to fourteen years' imprisonment.

More Japanese Successes.

On March 22, 1895, the Japanese effected a landing on one of the Pescadore Islands and took the forts the next day. Makung Castle was taken only after two engagements. A thousand Chinese troops on the Yen-kung peninsula surrendered. The Chinese themselves blew up the magazine on Fisher Island. On March 24th a Japanese squadron bombarded the forts of Haichow, on the Kiangsu coast, and under cover of the fire a force of several thousand Japanese troops landed and captured the city after a determined resistance from the Chinese, who lost three hundred killed and wounded.

Japanese Terms for an Armistice.

The Japanese plenipotentiaries proposed the following conditions for an armistice: 1. The occupation of Shan-hai-kuan, Taku and Tien-tsin by Japanese troops. 2. Japanese control of the unfinished

railroad from Shan-hai-kuan to Tien-tsin, and custody of the various forts and fortifications, together with the arms and ammunition. 3. The payment by China of the war contributions required for such occupation.

An Armistice.

The Japanese refused Li Hung Chang's request for more moderate conditions, but the Mikado finally ordered the Japanese plenipotentiaries to consent to an armistice until April 20, 1895. The armistice applied only to Feng-thien, Pechili and Shantung.

Peace of Shimonoseki.

The peace negotiations proceeded leisurely for several weeks, China hesitating to accept the Japanese conditions; but finally, when Japan by an ultimatum threatened to renew hostilities within twenty-four hours unless her terms were accepted, China agreed to Japan's conditions and the treaty was signed, April 16, 1895. The following were the conditions of the Peace of Shimonoseki: 1. The independence of Korea. 2. The retention of the conquered places by Japan. 3. The cession of the Liao-tung peninsula by China to Japan. 4. The permanent cession of the island of Formosa and the Pescadores by China to Japan. 5. The payment of a war indemnity of two hundred million taels in silver (one hundred million dollars) by China to Japan, in seven yearly instalments, five per cent. interest being added each year on the amount remaining unpaid, the whole of the interest to be canceled if China paid the entire indemnity within three years. 6. The opening of the ports of Chingtu, Kai-fong, Huchou and Shaoking, in China, to foreign commerce. Three weeks were allowed for the exchange of ratifications, and the armistice was prolonged to May 8th.

Protest of Russia, France and Germany.

The cession of Chinese territory on the continent of Asia to Japan was opposed bitterly by Russia, France and Germany; and the Ministers of these three European powers at Tokio issued a formal protest against the articles of the Peace of Shimonoseki stipulating for the cession of the Liao-tung peninsula to Japan. Great Britain refused to unite with the three powers in the protest and was denounced bitterly by the Russian press, which intimated that Russia should seize India in revenge for Great Britain's attitude in this emergency. Japan finally receded in this matter and agreed to accept a money compensation in place of the cession of the Liao-tung peninsula, whereupon the treaty of peace was ratified speedily by both China and Japan.

Progressive Japan's Superiority Over Conservative China.

Thus the Chino-Japanese War ended in the triumph of Japan. Such was the result of the vigorous, progressive civilization of the smaller of the two great empires of the Orient in its contest with the old effete civilization of the larger of these empires with its tenfold greater population and its fiftyfold more territory. The new triumphed

over the old—the modern over the past. China, which so stubbornly had rejected Western civilization, had been taught that she had lived in the past. In an incredibly brief space of time the defenses of the great Chinese Empire had been shown to be rotten; while Japan had proved herself to be on a level with the highest European standards in organization, in science, in discipline and in military spirit.

Revolt of Formosa against Japan.

Late in May, 1895, the Formosans proclaimed their island a republic, electing Tang, the late Chinese governor of the island, for their President; but when the Japanese troops took possession of the island President Tang fled, and the Formosan republic fell as suddenly as it arose, the Japanese defeating the Black Flags in several actions early in June.

Russia's Designs on Korea.

The selfishness of Russia threatened to deprive Japan of the fruits of her victories. No sooner had Japan liberated Korea from the suzerainty of the Emperor of China than Russia coveted the little kingdom, claiming that the possession of Korea was indispensable to the eastern dominions of the Czar. It seemed as if war between Russia and Japan would follow in the course of a few months, as the Russians were mobilizing an army of eighty thousand men at Vladivostok, the Russian port on the western coast of the Sea of Japan.

Revolutions in Korea.

An outbreak in Korea on October 8, 1895, removed the queen of that "Hermit Kingdom," who had been the chief obstacle to Japanese influence in the little peninsular kingdom. All the officials at the Korean court had been superseded by others who were in thorough sympathy with Japan. But on February 11, 1896, a counter-revolution began at Seoul, the Korean capital; and affairs were in so unsettled a condition that Russia intervened and sent a body of troops for the protection of the Czar's subjects and for the restoration of order.

Russo-Japanese Rivalry in Korea.

In June, 1896, Russia and Japan entered into an agreement for a joint protectorate over Korea, Japan's control being merely nominal, while the Korean king practically relied upon Russia. The Korean monarch's title was soon changed from that of King to that of Emperor.

Result of this Rivalry.

The constant rivalry between Russia and Japan during the next few years for trade supremacy and political influence in Korea threatened to break out into open hostilities on several occasions, and, along with the Russian aggressions in Manchuria, eventually led to the great Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905, which will be dwelt upon fully in the last section of this chapter.

SECTION IV.—FOREIGN AGGRESSIONS AND BOXER OUTBREAK IN CHINA (A. D. 1895-1900).

Russo-Chinese Financial Relations and the Chinese Indemnity to Japan.

After the Chino-Japanese War, Russia increased her influence upon China as a result of a clever financial coup organized between the Russian government and the Paris bankers. A Chinese indemnity loan was floated successfully in the French capital in July, 1895, the proceeds of which were handed over to China by Russia, which power guaranteed the interest. Ten million pounds sterling of the amount thus raised, which was paid over to Japan in accordance with the treaty of peace, was deposited by the Japanese government in the Bank of England, most of it being destined to pay for new Japanese ships of war. Japan's industrial progress after her war with China was most remarkable, and Japan was becoming as preëminent in the arts of peace as she had been victorious in war.

China's Foreign Relations.

After the Chino-Japanese War there were a series of isolated, though in some cases very serious, outbreaks of the anti-foreign mob spirit in China; which spirit resulted in the destruction of the foreign mission station and the massacre of several British missionaries at Ku-cheng, near Fu-chen, in August, 1895. In compliance with the stern demand of the British government, the Viceroy of the Chinese province of Szu-chuan was degraded, a consular investigation was held and a number of the guilty were executed. France obtained a rectification of the frontier between China and French Indo-China and considerable trade advantage with China. By a treaty with China in 1896 Russia secured the right to extend her Trans-Siberian Railway through Manchuria.

China's Demoralized Condition.

The close of the Chino-Japanese War found China in a demoralized condition. Her navy was annihilated; her army was broken up; her finances were in disorder; her government was reeking with corruption; her condition generally was almost helpless, and her Empire was believed to be in the throes of dissolution. China's general policy in opposing modern progress had borne its legitimate fruit; and even the brilliant abilities of such distinguished statesmen as Prince Kung, the Marquis Tseng and Li Hung Chang, who had been prominent in China's public affairs during the last forty years of the nineteenth century, were unable to stay the progress of decline and decay which seemed destined to overtake the oldest nation still existing in the world —the only modern nation which dates its existence from the remotest antiquity.

Threatened European Partition of China.

The Great Powers of Europe were not slow to take advantage of China's helpless condition to aggrandize themselves at her expense. For the purpose of extending their trade, Russia, Germany and France seemed intent upon a partition of the Celestial Empire, each to take a large slice of territory wherein to plant its political influence as well as to establish its trade firmly. In the latter part of 1897 Kioa-Chau Bay was occupied by a German military and naval force on the pretext of punishing the massacre of German missionaries by a Chinese mob, and China was forced to cede Kiao-Chau Bay and the adjacent territory to Germany for trade purposes, January, 1898. Soon afterward Russia seized Port Arthur and obtained the cession of that port and Ta-lien-wan from the Chinese Emperor for naval and commercial purposes. A little later a French fleet occupied the large and important island of Hainan, off the southern coast of the mainland of China, and obtained the cession of territory in Southern China for commercial purposes. These cessions of Chinese territory were called "leases" and "spheres of influence," and the European powers which obtained them were aiming for political influence as well as for trade and commercial privileges. It was believed that the European powers were seeking to partition China among themselves as they had partitioned Africa.

Foreign Railway and Mining Concessions in China.

Long and complicated negotiations ended in the conclusion of a large loan to China by an Anglo-German syndicate, which was completed only after M. Pavloff, the very energetic Russian Minister to China, had opposed successfully a proposal for a loan to China guaranteed by the British government and many other proposed arrangements. In the meantime the business of obtaining concessions for the construction of railways and the development of mines in China was pushed very actively by Russian, German, French, Belgian, Italian, British and American syndicates, thus causing intense commercial rivalry among the European powers and the United States. A concession for a railway from Pekin to Hankow was granted by the Chinese government to a Belgian syndicate acting in the interest of France and Russia, in June, 1898. Russia was busy at the port of Niu-Chwang as well as at fortifying Port Arthur and Ta-lien-wan, the name of the latter afterward being changed to Delny. The agents of the German-Asiatic Bank were active also. Besides obtaining valuable concessions in South China, France was granted privileges at Shanghai, in spite of the most vigorous opposition from Great Britain, which for many years had controlled the commercial activities of the Yang-tse-Kiang valley, the chief port of which was Shanghai.

Coup d'etat of the Dowager Empress of China.

These concessions to foreign syndicates in China never were relished by the Dowager Empress and the Conservative party at Pekin; and the result was a remarkable *coup d'etat* in the imperial palace in China's capital, in September, 1898, by which the wicked Dowager Empress, a woman guilty of many political murders and having the active support of the anti-foreign mandarins, practically deposed her nephew, the Emperor Kwang-su, reëstablished herself as regent and caused six of the leading reformers to be beheaded. After this palace revolution the energetic and vigorous but wicked Dowager Empress announced herself as favoring a policy of moderate reforms and proceeded to adopt a remarkable new precedent by receiving the wives of the foreign Ministers at the imperial palace in Pekin. After that remarkable palace revolution in China's imperial capital the Dowager Empress was practically the real ruler of China for the rest of her days.

Russia's Rivalry with Great Britain and Japan.

Lord Salisbury was criticised very severely in England for his lack of vigor in opposing the aggressions of Russia in the Far East, his course in this instance being in direct contrast with his vigorous and effective opposition to France's threatening attitude in Africa in connection with the Fashoda incident. The political and commercial rivalry of Russia with Great Britain and Japan in China, Manchuria and Korea continued; Russia seeking political preponderance and commercial monoply in those countries, while Great Britain and Japan were striving for equal trade privileges, or for the "open door" policy of all nations in the Far East, having the support of the United States in this attitude, as the great American Republic was competing with the other great nations of the world for the Chinese trade. As an insular nation, like Great Britain, Japan depended upon foreign commerce for the support of her people; and China was her nearest market. There was a constant rivalry between Russia on one side and Great Britain and Japan on the other side for commercial supremacy and political influence in the Far East, and this rivalry threatened to break out into hostilities several times during the year 1899. The combined fleets of Great Britain and Japan in Far Eastern waters were far superior to the fleets of all other powers in those waters. Russia and Japan by turns had controlled the policy of Korea, according as which party at Seoul swayed the destinies of Korea. Japan was alarmed at Russia's aggressions in Manchuria as well as at her spasmodic influence in Korea. Great Britain was as jealous of Russia's aggressions in Korea as was Japan; and when Russia caused the British commissioner of customs at Chemulpo, Korea, to be superseded by a Russian customs commissioner a British fleet proceeded to that Korean port and restored the deposed British commissioner, and the matter

was settled by British and Russian diplomacy. The rivalry between Russia and Japan on repeated occasions threatened to break out into a war between those two empires.

Russo-British Agreement.

The active rivalry between the Russian and British Ministers at the Chinese capital, sometimes amounting to direct opposition early in 1899, was terminated eventually by an agreement between the Russian and British governments regarding their respective interests in China. These two Great Powers agreed to maintain the integrity and independence of China and provided against any clash of interests concerning railway development in Manchuria and in the Yang-tse-Kiang valley. This Anglo-Russian agreement for the time put an end to Anglo-Russian rivalry in the Far East.

Another Coup d'etat by the Dowager Empress of China.

An imperial decree issued by the Dowager Empress on January 24, 1900, announced the incapacity of the Emperor Kwang-su and the appointment of Prince Tuan's nine-year-old son, To-Pu-Chun, as the heir to the Chinese imperial throne. The Dowager Empress immediately dismissed the generalissimo of the Chinese armies and other prominent state officials. These arbitrary proceedings produced rebellious outbreaks at Swatow and in the interior provinces of China under the instigation of the Chinese reform party, which appealed to the British, American and Japanese Ministers at Pekin to intervene and restore the Emperor Kwang-su to his throne. The deposition of Kwang-su caused great indignation in Japan. Kang-Yu-Wei, one of the reform leaders, telegraphed from Singapore, British India, that he could raise an army of four hundred thousand men to restore the deposed Emperor. The *China Gazette* accused the Dowager Empress of fearing a revolution in Pekin and appealing to Russia for aid, against which Japan protested. The Dowager Empress continued her persecution of the Chinese reform party and her antagonism to all Western ideas in China, drawing up a list of three hundred reformers who were to be proscribed and another list of thirty-five who were to be killed as soon as they were captured, at the same time offering a sum equal to one hundred thousand dollars for the head of Kang-Yu-Wei. The arbitrary course of this woman ruler threatened to involve China in both civil and foreign war. In a secret edict which she issued the Dowager Empress asserted that foreign powers were coveting China with "tiger-like voracity" and that she deprecated "the evil habits" of Chinese viceroys and governors attempting peaceable solutions of international disputes, saying: "It is our special command that should any high official find himself so hard pressed by circumstances that nothing short of war would settle matters he is expected resolutely to set himself to work out his duty to this end." In the new examination

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THE BOXER TROUBLES

Left: Boxer Prisoners at Tientsin

Right: U. S. Soldiers Assisting Wounded Japanese After the Battle at Tientsin

for degrees in honor of the Chinese Emperor's birthday the Dowager Empress ordered that the examining officials should suppress all essays mentioning reform, Western science or "new ideas"; threatening severe punishment to all who disobeyed this decree.

Boxer Outbreaks in 1900.

In the spring of 1900 the disorders in China became extreme, especially in the provinces of Shantung and Pechili, whence they threatened to spread into other provinces. The boldness of the Boxers, a powerful anti-foreign league of Chinamen, increased as time went on. The Boxers were so called because the pretended reason for their existence was to indulge in the athletic pastime of boxing. They continued their outrages on foreigners in the provinces of Shantung and Pechili. The efforts of Chinese officials to fulfill the government's promises to suppress and punish the Boxers were only half-hearted; and the lawlessness had become so serious as to give rise to the report from Shanghai that the British, French, German and American Ministers in China had sent a joint note to the Tsung-li-Yamen, or Chinese Foreign Office, on April 7, 1900, to the effect that if the Boxers were not suppressed by the Chinese authorities foreign troops would be landed in China and would march into the interior of the country to protect foreigners whose lives and property were menaced.

Insincere Attitude of the Chinese Government.

The Chinese government, under the Dowager Empress, showed itself either unwilling or powerless to suppress the constantly-increasing lawlessness of the Boxers. It issued wordy commands which were not enforced, and it expected the foreign diplomatic representatives to accept these commands as evidence of fulfilling its obligations. On April 19, 1900, an imperial edict was issued to all Chinese viceroys and governors, directing them to warn armed organizations to refrain from hostile and lawless acts toward native Christians and to punish with great severity any violation of this edict. To offset this the Dowager Empress issued a secret edict to the Chinese soldiers not to fire on the Boxers, and no Boxer had been arrested so far. The Tsung-li-Yamen discussed an offer of Russian troops to suppress the disorders which the Boxers had excited. During the second week of June, 1900, the Dowager Empress issued another decree virtually justifying the Boxer disturbances. From the very beginning of the outbreak the Chinese government's attitude was practically one of approval of the anti-foreign Boxer movement; and the Chinese troops supposed to be fighting the Boxers were operating against them in a half-hearted manner, while many of the troops openly deserted to the Boxers.

Boxer Repulse and Punishments.

A mob of three thousand Boxers attacked sixty British troops under Captain Watson at Wei-hai-wei, but were repulsed without any loss to the British. On May 16, 1900, it was announced that the Boxers who

had murdered the English missionary Brooks had been punished by order of the Dowager Empress, one of the murderers being beheaded, another being sentenced to strangulation, a third to life imprisonment and four others to ten years' imprisonment. It was stated afterward that the two men condemned to death purchased substitutes to receive the penalty in their stead, one for a sum equal to one thousand dollars and the other for a sum equal to six hundred dollars.

More Boxer Massacres.

A condition of anarchy existed between Pekin and Tien-tsin. The destruction of the Christian mission stations and the massacre of native Chinese Christians was spreading throughout the provinces of Pechili and Shantung; and thousands of foreign missionaries and native Christians fell victims to the inhuman fury of the Boxers and the Chinese troops, being hacked to pieces in the most inhuman manner at Tung-chow, Weiksien, Kung-tsun and other places. Several thousand were massacred at the Roman Catholic convent at Paotingfu. The English missionaries Norman, Robinson and Ellis were cut to pieces. The Christian missionaries in Pekin appealed to Christendom to come to their rescue.

Foreign Guards in Pekin.

Late in May, 1900, owing to the spread of the Boxers' outbreak and the dangerous excitement which prevailed in Pekin, the legations of the Great European Powers and the United States notified the Tsung-li-Yamen that foreign guards had been summoned and would arrive immediately. The disturbances which the Boxers excited in the vicinity of Pekin produced a crisis which brought three hundred and forty British, American, French, Italian, Russian and Japanese troops into the Chinese imperial capital, with quick-firing cannon. Several American warships under the command of Admiral Kempff were stationed at Taku, with the warships of the Great European Powers and Japan.

Admiral Seymour and His Relief Expedition.

On June 10, 1900, about two thousand foreign troops—British, Americans, French, Germans, Italians, Russians and Japanese—left Tien-tsin for Pekin by train, under the command of the British Vice-Admiral Edward Hobart Seymour; and the next day—June 11, 1900—this allied international force routed the Boxers at Lang-fang, midway between Tien-tsin and Pekin, about thirty-five Boxers being killed; but, as many miles of the railway had been torn up by the Boxers, Admiral Seymour's relief force was delayed in its advance to the Chinese capital to rescue the foreign legations, missionaries and others. The foreign Ministers in Pekin were virtual prisoners, and their only protection against attacks from Chinese troops and mobs was a small international guard. Admiral Seymour's relief force was not heard from for several weeks.

Foreign Troops and War-ships.

The allied foreign powers came to an understanding by which each agreed to send troops to rescue their beleaguered envoys in Pekin. Russia sent six thousand troops from her garrison at Port Arthur, and Great Britain sent six hundred from Hong Kong; while warships of Great Britain, Russia, Germany, France, Japan and the United States had collected in the vicinity of Taku, to be prepared for any emergencies. Thus China had arrayed herself against Christendom and defied all the great nations of the world.

Capture of Taku by the Allies.

On Sunday, June 17, 1900, the allied international fleet was fired upon by the Chinese forts at Taku without warning, whereupon the allied foreign fleets bombarded the Taku forts and took them. The British gunboat *Algerine* was damaged. About four hundred Chinese were killed and a large number were wounded. Thirty-two allied foreign warships were engaged in the fight with the Chinese forts. Two of the forts were blown up, and several of the foreign warships were struck by the 12-inch cannon of the forts. While retreating from the forts the Chinese garrisons were captured by the Russian land forces. Admiral Kempff, the commander of the American warships, reported that he did not join in the attack on Taku because, to use his own words, "I was not authorized to initiate any act of war with a country with which my country was at peace."

Allied Troops Ordered to China.

The action of the Taku forts in firing upon the allied fleet was said to have been in accordance with secret orders conveyed in a personal edict from the Dowager Empress of China, by advice of Kang-Yi, President of the Chinese Ministry of War. As China, by this action, practically declared war against the allied foreign powers, the powers took prompt action. Germany ordered four thousand troops to China. France ordered ten thousand from French Indo-China. Russia ordered five thousand more from Port Arthur. Japan prepared to send twenty thousand men to the seat of action. Great Britain ordered several additional regiments from British India and ten thousand troops from South Africa, at the same time sending the warship *Daphne* to the scene of hostilities. The United States ordered three infantry regiments under General Adna Romanza Chaffee from the Philippines to China and ordered the cruiser *Brooklyn* under Admiral Remey from Manila to Taku.

Bombardment of Tien-tsin.

On June 21, 1900, it was announced officially that the Chinese portion of Tien-tsin was being bombarded by the allied fleets, because the Chinese were bombarding the foreign settlement there, having shelled and destroyed the American consulate and much of the foreign concessions. Admiral Seymour had not been heard from for more than a week, and a report spread to Europe that he had been killed. The

foreign quarter of Tien-tsin was bombarded for five days by Chinese imperial troops, and the allied naval commanders at Taku were hurrying a relief expedition to that place. The United States gunboat *Nashville* rescued the whole foreign community at Peitaho, including thirty-three Americans; and eight hundred American soldiers took part with three thousand troops of other nations in defending Tien-tsin against a greatly-superior Chinese force. On June 21st four of Major Waller's United States marines were killed and seven wounded and one hundred and eighty Russians were killed and wounded in a Chinese ambuscade near Tien-tsin, in trying to relieve the besieged foreigners. In the fighting at Tien-tsin on June 22d the commander of the British battleship *Barfleur* was killed and the allies lost three hundred men in killed and wounded.

Relief of Tien-tsin.

On Sunday, June 24, 1900, the allied relief force of two thousand troops, half of them Japanese, started for Tien-tsin. On the same day a British Indian force consisting of eight hundred Sikhs and two hundred Welsh Fusiliers joined the American, German and Russian forces which had been cut off by the Chinese about nine miles from Tien-tsin. These combined allied troops made an assault on the Chinese force at Tien-tsin the same day and rescued the besieged foreigners. The British and American troops broke the lines of the Chinese besiegers and silenced the Chinese artillery, and they were the first of the allies to enter the city. The allies suffered small losses, the Russians suffering most, their loss being four killed and thirty wounded. Late in June three thousand Japanese troops landed at Taku, where a French battalion also arrived. After the allied relief force had gone to rescue Admiral Seymour the Chinese regulars under General Nieh again fiercely bombarded the foreign settlement at Tien-tsin.

Rescue of Admiral Seymour.

Admiral Seymour's heliograph message for help spurred the international relief force under the Russian general to haste. The Russian general started on June 25, 1900, to rescue the British admiral and his allied troops and the foreign envoys who were supposed to be with him, as the American Admiral Kempff and the British Admiral Bruce had cabled their respective governments that Admiral Seymour's relief expedition then was eight miles from Tien-tsin and in dire straits and that the foreign Ministers were with the expedition. To the great relief of Christendom, it was learned on June 29, 1900, that Admiral Seymour and his brave marines from the allied nations had been rescued by the allied international force under the Russian general, the relief being effected by the advance column under the British Colonel Dorward. American marines under Commander McCalla, of the United States navy, participated in the rescue; while Lieutenant Jayne, of the

United States warship *Newark*, with a few American marines, went on a hazardous expedition up the Peiho River. It was learned now that the foreign Ministers were not with Admiral Seymour's expedition, which for fifteen days before its rescue had been fighting the immense hordes of Chinese who had surrounded and threatened to overwhelm the heroic little band of allies, who lost sixty-two killed and two hundred and six wounded.

Massacres in Pekin.

In the meantime Pekin was in the power of the Boxer mob; but this mob was directed and controlled by the Dowager Empress, Prince Tuan and their party; while Prince Ching, who desired to protect the foreigners, was utterly powerless. On Sunday night, June 10, 1900, the British legation's new summer residence near Pekin was burned down. On the 11th, the Chancellor of the Japanese legation in Pekin was assassinated by Chinese soldiers belonging to the Dowager Empress's bodyguard. The next day—June 12, 1900—while a delegation from the Tsung-li-Yamen was calling on the British Minister, Sir Claude Macdonald, two thousand Christians were seeking refuge in Peitang Cathedral under Monseigneur Favier; and that very night the demoniac yells of the Boxers and the shrieks and groans of their dying victims resounded in other quarters of China's capital. According to Dr. Morrison, correspondent of the London *Times*, "acres of houses were destroyed and the [native] Christians in thousands put to the sword." Said the same writer: "During the awful nights of the 13th and 14th [June, 1900] Duke Lan, brother of Prince Tuan, and Chao-Shu-Chiao, of the Tsung-li-Yamen, had followed round in their carts to gloat over the spectacle."

Assassination of Baron von Ketteler.

On June 19, 1900, the Chinese government, directed by the Dowager Empress, Prime Tuan and the reactionary mandarins, sent a message to the foreign legations in the Chinese capital to the effect that the capture of the Taku forts two days before—June 17, 1900—constituted a state of war and that therefore all foreigners must leave the Chinese capital within twenty-four hours under safe conduct and retire to Tien-tsin. The British Minister, Sir Claude Macdonald; the United States Minister, Hon. Edwin Hurd Conger, and the other diplomats, with the single exception of the Baron von Ketteler, the German Minister, suspecting Chinese treachery, feared to comply with the Chinese official demand; and their suspicions were justified by the tragedy of the following day. On the morning of June 20, 1900, as the Baron von Ketteler and his secretary were riding along Legation street, on their way to the Tsung-li-Yamen, they were attacked fiercely by Chinese soldiers; the Minister being killed and his secretary being wounded. The secretary escaped almost miraculously and returned to

the other foreign legations in the British legation inclosure, and his account of the tragic end of the German Minister finally induced the other foreign Ministers to remain where they were and not to venture away from the British legation grounds and run the risk of assassination by a treacherous Chinese mob. In revenge for the murder of the Baron von Ketteler, the German guards burned the building of the Tsung-li-Yamen. Emperor William II. was furious with rage at the assassination of his diplomatic representative in China's capital and prepared to send an army to that country sufficiently large to avenge the crime.

Siege of the Legations in Pekin.

The siege of the foreign legations at Pekin definitely began on June 20, 1900, the day of the murder of the Baron von Ketteler. The foreign diplomats and missionaries, all penned up in the British legation grounds, were fighting for their lives, being besieged under constant rifle and artillery fire, with women and children starving and dying in the legation buildings. The British legation grounds in Pekin are an inclosure of ten acres surrounded with a high wall of sun-dried clay, and in this inclosure are a series of legation buildings. In this inclosure and in the adjoining palace of Prince Su the little band of foreign diplomats and missionaries, exposed to the constant rifle and artillery fire of the Boxers and Chinese troops, for eight long and weary weeks were protected by three hundred and forty foreign guards, who successfully repelled all the attacks of their infuriated foes, in one of the most heroic and celebrated defenses against superior odds to be found in all history, until finally rescued by the allied army of deliverance on August 14, 1900. Heads of massacred foreigners were paraded constantly in the streets of Pekin, at the tops of spears, followed by crowds who sang: "Tapi yang kuei tse; tapi, tapi!" ("Kill the foreign devils; kill, kill!") Pekin's millions were roused to patriotic fervor, breaking out into the wildest excesses, while over half the city could be heard fighting around the legations. The foreign inmates of the British legation buildings could escape bullets only to face starvation. The survivors were short of food. During those terrible weeks of suspense Europe and America were without authentic news of the inmates of the legations, and even in official circles at times it was believed that the legations had fallen and that all the inmates had become victims to the fanatical rage of the Chinese mob. The American missionaries were assembled in the Methodist compound (inclosure), which had a guard of only ten marines. A committee of American missionaries sent out the following appeal: "Arouse the Christian world immediately to our peril. Should this arrive too late, avenge us." Sir Robert Hart reported several times that there was little hope

of holding out successfully. A message from United States Minister Conger, dated July 4th, got to Tien-tsin and was as follows: "Been besieged two weeks British legation. Grave danger general massacre by Chinese soldiers, who are shelling legation daily. Relief soon, if at all. City without government except by Chinese army (which is) determined massacre all foreigners Pekin. Entry relief forces into city probably be hotly contested. Conger." A cipher dispatch from Minister Conger on July 18th said: "Quick relief only can prevent a general massacre." The United States government ordered Admiral Remey to "use and urge every means possible for the immediate relief of Minister Conger." Minister Conger sent to General Chaffee, the commander of the American contingent of the allied army marching on Pekin, the following message: "We will hold out until your arrival."

Incessant Fighting at Tien-tsin.

In the meantime fighting had been going on almost daily at Tien-tsin, and the Chinese quarter of the city was bombarded constantly by the allies. By the end of June, 1900, the allies had landed fourteen thousand troops at Taku, and these foreign troops were going daily to reinforce the allied force at Tien-tsin. The Chinese surrounded and bombarded the foreign settlement. The Japanese pushed on to Tien-tsin; and a Russo-Japanese force left Tien-tsin, following the railway as far as Lang-fang, whence they swept swiftly to the west, attacking the Chinese troops sent out by Prince Tuan, eighteen miles north of Tien-tsin, and killing one thousand of them. On July 6, 1900, the allies were defeated in a six hours' battle at Tien-tsin, the Chinese re-occupying the eastern arsenal after inflicting great loss upon the allies, and both sides fighting with the greatest determination. The allied commanders sent urgent appeals for reinforcements, and the Japanese commander said that the international forces under his command were in imminent danger of general defeat.

Allied Repulse at Tien-tsin.

On July 13, 1900, the allies were repulsed terribly by the Chinese at Tien-tsin. The Ninth United States Infantry was cut to pieces; and its commander, Colonel Emerson H. Liscum, was killed. Other allied officers also were killed. More than one hundred of the allied troops were killed and over three hundred were wounded in an attempt to storm the native city wall. Seven thousand allied troops were engaged—Americans, British, Japanese, Russians and French; while the Chinese troops numbered twenty thousand. The battle began at dawn and lasted all day, ending at nightfall in a Chinese victory. The Chinese troops at Tien-tsin were armed with modern Krupp cannon and Mauser rifles, more than eighty thousand Chinese troops being armed with these improved implements of war.

Capture of Tien-tsin by the Allies.

Finally, on July 15, 1900, after terrific fighting, the allies drove the Chinese forces entirely out of Tien-tsin, back to the Shekan arsenal. Tien-tsin was taken and the battle won by the British naval cannon and lyddite shells, the Chinese troops being demoralized so thoroughly that they stole away quietly in the night, leaving the native Chinese quarter to the mercy of the frenzied inhabitants, who plundered that entire district. The left wing of the allies consisted of the British and Americans under the command of the British General Dorward. Only after repeated assaults by the British, American and Japanese troops was the city taken. The city caught fire from the British lyddite shells and was almost destroyed. Thus Tien-tsin—a Chinese city with a million inhabitants—was in the military possession of the allied international forces.

More Foreign Troops Sent to China.

The allied foreign powers still were sending troops and warships to China. More British troops proceeded to China from British India. French troops and warships sailed from Toulon for the scene of hostilities. German troops and warships sailed from Kiel for the same destination. American troops under General Adna Romanza Chaffee were sent to China from the Philippines, and American warships under Admirals Kempff and Remey were near the seat of action. Russian troops were on the way from Manchuria. Japan was sending twenty thousand troops to China, and of all the international troops in the field, hers were the best-equipped as well as the most numerous. There were nine foreign warships at Shanghai—four British, two Japanese, one American, one French and one Dutch. The French Chamber of Deputies voted an additional fourteen and a half million francs to conduct military operations in China, and drastic measures were proposed in the British Parliament to deal with the situation there. Great Britain also notified the Chinese imperial government and the Viceroys of the various Chinese provinces that they would be held responsible personally if any Europeans within their respective jurisdictions were harmed by the bloodthirsty Boxers.

Field-Marshal Count von Waldersee.

Owing to the animated rivalry and jealousy between the British and the Russians as to which should furnish the chief commander of the allied troops in China, the allied powers finally agreed upon the German Field-Marshal Count von Waldersee, a warrior high in the estimation of the Emperor William II. The United States agreed to accept him as the international generalissimo provided war existed in China when he arrived there. Von Waldersee arrived in China too late to participate in the relief of Pekin. In speeches to departing troops Emperor William II. said: "No mercy will be shown. No prisoners will be taken! As the Huns, under King Attila, made a name for themselves, which

is still mighty in traditions and legends today, may the name of Germany be so fixed in China by your deeds that no Chinese will ever again dare to look askance at a German."

Attitude of the Allied Powers.

In the meantime jealousies among the allied powers hindered harmonious action among them, especially the traditional jealousy between Russia on the one side and Great Britain and Japan on the other; and only the urgent necessity for common united action prevented an open rupture on several occasions. The apparent disposition of the Russians to hold on to Manchuria, where they had defeated the Boxers in a number of engagements, aroused the jealousy of the British and the Japanese; while the attitude of the British at Shanghai was causing uneasiness to the French and Germans, who protested against the landing of British troops there. Great Britain and the United States acted harmoniously as allies in their policy toward China, opposing all schemes for wars of conquest and all projects for the partition of China, their only purpose being to rescue their beleaguered legations and to protect their respective subjects and citizens in that Far Eastern country. The allied powers seemed to be alligned thus: Great Britain, the United States and Japan standing together, while Russia, France and Germany appeared to be acting in harmony. There was no open expression of such attitude; but the apparent disposition of the powers acting for the moment in unison against the Boxers furnished seeming evidences of such division among them, which only the most skillful diplomacy was able to conceal.

Allied March on Pekin.

The situation at Pekin was so desperate that on August 1, 1900, the allied army of twenty-five thousand men, consisting of British, French, Russians, Japanese and Americans, started from Tien-tsin for Pekin, making good progress the first day. The main body of the Chinese imperial troops had left Pekin on July 21st to oppose the march of the allies. On Sunday, August 5, 1900, the Chinese were repulsed by the allies in a hard fight at Peit-sang, near Tien-tsin, with the loss of almost four thousand men killed and wounded, while the allies lost twelve hundred killed and wounded. The allied troops engaged numbered sixteen thousand and the Chinese thirty thousand. The engagement lasted seven hours, and the Chinese displayed great courage and military discipline. Two days later—August 7, 1900—the allies captured the Chinese position at Yang-tsun after a hard forced march in intense heat, which prostrated many men, the allies losing seven hundred men, sixty of whom were Americans. The next day—August 8, 1900—the allies routed the Chinese in a brief engagement at Tsi-nin. The victorious allies now were rushing to Pekin, with orders to take no rest; while the Chinese, in a panic, were retreating toward their

Battles of Peit-sang, Yang-tsun and Tsi-nin.

capital, making little opposition to the advance of the allies, although Prince Tuan had ordered them to contest every inch of ground.

Capture of Pekin.

Finally, on August 14, 1900, the allies captured Pekin, after an obstinate resistance on the part of the Chinese, and rescued the besieged legations and missionaries. It is said that when the overjoyed little band of foreigners heard the booming of the cannon of the allied armies coming for their deliverance they sang the familiar Doxology: "Praise God, from Whom all Blessings Flow." The allies immediately surrounded the foreign legations to protect them. The allies were obliged to blow up the gates of the city before they could enter. The British and the Americans entered at the Tung Pien gates unopposed; while the Japanese and the Russians, after fierce fighting, blew up the two eastern gates of the Tartar city and entered. Among the Americans killed was Captain Reilly, of the Fifth United States Artillery. After surrounding the legations the victorious allies drove off the Chinese and rescued the foreigners, all the Ministers being found safe. The Austrian Charge d'Affairs, Dr. von Rosthorn, was wounded slightly. The Dowager Empress, Emperor Kwang-su and the imperial court fled from the capital before the allies entered, going to Singanfu, an ancient capital of China, in the inaccessible portion of the province of Shensi, about seven hundred and fifty miles west of Pekin.

Street Fighting in Pekin.

Street fighting continued in Pekin, the allies being opposed at every step when they entered new districts, and not having sufficient force to police the city efficiently and put down the half-armed Chinese mobs, though they drove the Boxers from all points which they had occupied. The allies marched through the doors of the imperial palace, probably for humiliating effect on the Chinese nation; and afterwards they closed the doors of the palace, thus shutting out the Chinese soldiers. Chinese forces rallied to attack the allies in Pekin, and there were signs that the foreign troops might be besieged in the Chinese capital. The allied army in Pekin soon was reinforced by a German contingent, which constituted the vanguard of the army which the Emperor William II. was sending to China to avenge the murder of his Minister; and very soon the Count von Waldersee arrived in the Chinese capital to assume the chief command of all the allied forces there.

Shameful Pillage.

The Germans, French and Russians disgraced themselves by their pillage of the Chinese capital, sending much valuable plunder to their respective countries; in which reprehensible proceedings the British, Americans and Japanese did not participate and against which they protested. Among the valuable plunder sent to Europe was the famous clock which had been put in China's capital several centuries before by a celebrated Roman Catholic missionary.

Military Operations in Pechili and Shantung.

During the fall of 1900 the allies prosecuted military operations vigorously against the Boxers and the Chinese troops in the provinces of Pechili and Shantung, and won a number of victories over small Chinese detachments, while the Russians achieved a number of successes over the Chinese in Manchuria. The British and Germans sent several punitive expeditions to punish Boxer outrages. The Germans treated their vanquished Chinese foes with the most barbarous cruelty, shooting many of them after taking them prisoners and compelling them to stand over the graves which had been dug for them so that they would fall right into the graves as they were shot.

Peace Negotiations.

As early as August 20, 1900, Li Hung Chang had asked the allied powers for the cessation of hostilities and for the appointment of commissioners to negotiate a permanent peace, as Pekin then had been captured and the foreign legations rescued. The next day he made a request for the speedy evacuation of the Chinese capital by the allied troops. The peace commission met in Paris on October 20, 1900, when the Chinese plenipotentiaries proposed an indemnity amounting to two hundred and thirty million dollars to be paid in sixty installments, all customs and similar taxes to be placed under foreign control in the meantime.

Peace Agreement.

After almost a month passed in daily conferences, the allied Ministers at Pekin finally agreed upon a joint preliminary demand upon China, subject to the approval of their respective governments. The terms were as follows: An indemnity amounting to three hundred and thirty-seven million dollars to be paid by China to the allied nations; the execution of eleven guilty Chinese princes and high officials as a punishment for the Boxer outrages; the Taku forts and other forts on the Gulf of Pechili to be razed and the importation of arms and war material to be prohibited; permanent legation guards at Pekin and guards of communication between Pekin and the sea; imperial edicts suppressing the Boxers to be posted throughout the Chinese Empire for two years; the Tsung-li-Yamen to be abolished and its functions to be vested in a Minister of Foreign Affairs, and rational intercourse to be permitted with the Chinese Emperor as in all civilized countries; provincial examinations to be suspended for five years, and in future all officials who have not made due effort to prevent outrages on foreigners within their respective jurisdictions to be removed from office immediately and punished; the indemnity to include compensation for the Chinese who suffered because of being employed by foreigners; the erection of a monument by China to the Baron von Ketteler at the site of his murder and the sending of a Chinese imperial prince to Germany to make an apology for the crime. China finally accepted the allied terms of peace,

and the international troops were withdrawn gradually from the country.

Manchuria.

By this agreement China gave Russia exclusive mining and railway privileges in Manchuria for three years, but on October 8, 1903, Russia failed to evacuate as agreed. The Russo-Japanese War, however, intervened, and by the Treaty of Portsmouth in 1905 Manchuria was restored to China.

SECTION V.—CHINA BECOMES A REPUBLIC.

Chinese Students in the United States.

The indemnity imposed upon China for the Boxer movement was $337,500,000. The amount was excessive. In 1908 President Roosevelt agreed to remit $10,800,000 of the share allotted to the United States. At the same time it was suggested that this money should be used to pay the expenses of Chinese students studying in the United States. China accepted the suggestion with enthusiasm, and late in 1909 thirty-seven Chinese students arrived in the United States to enter our educational institutions, their expenses being paid by the Chinese government. Since that time a succession of such students have continued to come to this country.

Chinese Revolution.

The failure of the Boxer movement was followed by a reaction in favor of the Western civilization. The Chinese were convinced of the utter incompetence of their rulers and began to demand a larger share in the government of the country. The Manchu dynasty withheld concessions as long as possible but finally in 1907 promised to grant a constitution not later than 1913. This concession did not satisfy the progressive element, and finally in October, 1911, a rebellion broke out in central China. The movement spread rapidly from province to province and on New Year's day 1912 a republic was proclaimed in Nanking. Dr. Sun Yat-Sen was installed as provisional president.

Sun Yat-Sen.

This remarkable man, sometimes called the "George Washington of China," was born near Canton in 1867. He studied medicine under British and American instructors at Canton and Hong Kong and became a Christian. He became interested in advancing the civilization of his people and spent many years travelling about the world organizing Chinese reform associations. This activity caused him to be proscribed by the Chinese government and at one time an attempt was made to kidnap him in London and take him back to China for execution.

The Manchu government had called to the head of affairs as practical dictator a very energetic statesman and soldier named Yuan Shi-

Republicans Win.

Kai. Already there had been much bloody fighting in which even prisoners were put to death. Yuan proved unable to stop the progress of the revolutionists and on February 12, 1912, the Manchu dynasty abdicated the throne. The nominal ruler at that time was Pu-Yi, a boy of six years who had been crowned four years before. To this boy Emperor was granted the right to continue to enjoy imperial honors within his exclusive sanctuary.

Constitutions.

A provisional constitution was adopted in March, 1912. It established democratic principles of government, and was replaced by a permanent constitution late in 1923. But the people of China were not really ready for self-government, and the history of China under the republic has been marked by numerous civil wars. Thus the republic itself was imperiled.

Yuan Shi-Kai.

Yuan Shi-Kai accepted the inevitable and did not attempt to stay the march of progress. For the sake of harmony Sun Yat-Sen patriotically resigned as Provisional President, and the National Assembly elected Yuan Shi-Kai as President. The capital of the republic was transferred from Nanking to Peking. In his first presidential message Yuan urged the necessity of financial reorganization and the desirability of friendly relations with foreign nations. Educational and property qualifications were established for voters, but in the first general election, notwithstanding these qualifications, there were about 40,000,000 voters, about one in ten of the population. The first session of the first Parliament was opened in April, 1913. The lower House had 596 members, and the Senate 274. The Parliament elected Yuan Shi-Kai President for five years. The course of Yuan's government proved unsatisfactory to some of the republicans in Southern China, and Sun Yat-Sen and others began a new revolt but were ultimately defeated. Yuan was now practical dictator of China and ruled with a high hand, dissolving Parliament and creating an Administrative Conference of seventy-one members. His enemies contended that Yuan was reactionary, but his friends insisted that he was carrying out reforms as rapidly as was practicable. To aid in the process of reform Yuan called to China eminent American political scientists, the most notable of these being Professor Frank J. Goodnow of Columbia University. In 1915 war threatened with Japan, and China was compelled to make humiliating concessions to that country. Late in the same year Yuan announced that he had decided that a republican form of government was not suited to the needs of China. He attempted to make himself Emperor, but uprisings took place in several provinces, and Yuan changed his mind and restored the republic. In June of the next year he died and was succeeded by the Vice President Li Yuan-hung.

Civil War.

Early in 1917 under pressure from the Allies and from the United States China broke diplomatic relations with Germany. Premier Tuan Chi-jui wished to declare war on Germany but the Parliament would not consent, and Tuan was dismissed from office by the President. A civil war then broke out, and an attempt was made to restore to power the Boy Emperor Pu-Yi. This attempt soon broke down and the Emperor once more abdicated. At a new election Feng Kuo-chang who had been Vice President but had become practical dictator at the time of the uprising of the Monarchists was elected President. Soon after China declared war against both Germany and Austria-Hungary. No troops were sent to the theatre of war, but steps were taken to eradicate Teutonic influence in the country.

China Enters the Great War.

Lansing-Ishii Agreement.

Throughout this period encroachments of Japan caused great concern in China. As already stated, in 1915 Japan compelled China to make important concessions that, according to one point of view, practically reduced China to a condition of vassalage. The Japanese, however, insisted that their only aim was to safeguard China from exploitation by other powers. Late in 1917 the United States and Japan concluded at Lansing-Ishii "Gentlemen's Agreement," whereby Japan guaranteed the territorial integrity and political independence of China, while the United States recognized that Japan had a special interest in China similar to that of the United States in Latin-America. This agreement and the concessions made in 1915 greatly angered patriotic Chinese, and this feeling was heightened when at the Peace Conference in 1919 Shantung, which had been held by Germany and then conquered by Japan, was awarded to Japan. The Chinese delegates refused to sign the Treaty of Versailles because of this stipulation. They felt that they had been betrayed by the United States, the representative of which had, as an inducement to China to enter the war, promised that Shantung should be returned to China. Feeling that the United States had not lived up to its obligations, the American minister, Paul Reinsch, resigned his post by way of protest.

Disarmament Conference.

The wrong thus done was remedied at the Disarmament Conference held at Washington in 1921-22. An account of the work of this Conference is given in the chapter on the recent history of the United States. At this Conference a Nine-Power general treaty bound the signatory nations to respect the sovereignty, the independence and the territorial and administrative integrity of China, and to abide by the principle of the "open door" for trade. Another treaty dealt with the Chinese customs and provided for raising the existing import tariff to a higher rate. Largely through the influence of the British and American delegates an amicable solution of the Shantung deadlock

was affected and Japan consented to relinquish a number of preferential rights that she had extorted in 1905.

Tuchuns.

Conditions in China in the last few years have continued to be chaotic. Even now, January, 1926, fighting is taking place in the neighborhood of Pekin between rival factions. Chinese troubles have been due in part to rivalry between northern China and southern China. Another cause of conflict is the so called tuchunate. Yuan Shi-Kai, when President, appointed in each province a Tuchun or military governor, who was equal in rank to the civil governor but was really superior to him in actual power. These Tuchuns were supreme military commanders in their provinces and used the revenues to maintain their forces and sometimes for their own enrichment. Occasionally one became powerful enough to defy the central government and to make war upon that government or upon neighbor Tuchuns. The central government was weak and had little more than a shadow of authority. Banditry and disorder flourished. President Li-Yuan-hung was compelled to resign in June, 1923, and in October Tsao Kum was elected president in an election that was notoriously corrupt. A permanent constitution was promulgated in the same month, but civil war has made it practically a dead letter. Tsao had, as the military power behind the Presidential chair, Wu Pei-fu. Under them the northern military leaders were dominant. This Pekin government was opposed, however, by the Tuchun in Manchuria and by Dr. Sun Yat-Sen, who headed the Canton or southern Liberal faction, and also by other leaders elsewhere. After considerable fighting Sun Yat-Sen was overthrown. For a time Tsao and Wu prospered, but ultimately, partly as a result of treachery, they were driven from power and Tuan, a former leader who had been driven into retirement became chief executive in a provisional government.

New Civil Wars.

Real Progress.

Though friends of China have deplored many of the things that have occurred in that country, there can be little question that real progress in civilization has been made in the last quarter of a century. As one of her own statesmen has remarked, the inertia of such a vast country, containing a quarter of the whole human family is so great that a longer time is required to effect a transformation in conditions than was the case in a smaller country like Japan. The same statesman adds: "And if the West was inclined to be impatient with China's tardy progress, it may soon complain that she is going too fast. This will be when the momentum of her immense size and teeming millions gathers weight, and then the resultant inertia of motion may be difficult to restrain or regulate."

Beginning of an Industrial Revolution.

In the period mentioned Chinese hostility to Western innovations has practically broken down. One of the first of the ancient customs sacrificed by the believers in western civilization was the "pig tail," and when the republican revolution began, one of the certain methods by which the soldiers of the old order were able to distinguish republican "traitors" was the absence of that appendage. A beginning has been made towards an industrial revolution in China, and by 1923 there were about 19,000 factories using steam or electric power and labor-saving machines. In the last dozen years the railroad mileage has been doubled. A modern postal system has been established, which in 1922 handled 426,000,000 pieces of mail. Thousands of Chinese students have studied in the schools of the United States and Europe. Great progress has been made towards transforming the educational system at home. In 1923 nearly 7,000,000 pupils were attending 178,981 institutions of learning, included in which number were 385 normal schools and 125 universities and colleges. Of these seven millions of students, however, only 418,170 were girls.

SECTION VI.—RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR (A. D. 1904-1905).

The Great War.

The greatest event in the world's history during the years 1904 and 1905 was the great Russo-Japanese War, one of the most gigantic struggles in the annals of time—a conflict characterized by battles which for magnitude of numbers engaged and losses on each side as well as for length of duration had been unsurpassed up to that time. To the surprise of mankind generally, the little insular Empire of Japan won an unbroken series of victories on sea and land and came out victorious after a struggle of nineteen months, humbling her great rival and taking her place as one of the great military and naval powers of the world. Thus Japan, with only about fifty millions of people, after humiliating China with her four hundred million inhabitants, ten years later defeated Russia with her one hundred and thirty million.

Prelude to the War.

The action of Russia in 1895, with the support of France and Germany, in depriving Japan of the great fruits of her victory over China by preventing the cession of the Liao-tung peninsula by China to Japan and afterward obtaining that peninsula for herself by treaty with China, eventually rendered war between Russia and Japan inevitable. In fact, it was inevitable long before that. Russia's gradual expansion eastward through northern Asia, which rendered ultimately necessary to her the control of important points on the Pacific coast of

Asia opposite Japan, along with Japan's natural ambition to obtain possessions and commercial advantages on the Asiatic mainland, long before portended an armed collision between the empires of the Czar and the Mikado.

Russia's Acquisition of the Amour Region.

Russia's first acquisitions in the Far East since the middle of the nineteenth century were obtained by astute diplomacy at the expense of China; and her successes in this regard were due largely, first and last, to a full acquaintance with the Manchu characteristics. The acquisition of the Amour province by Russia from China through Count Muravieff's skillful diplomacy in 1858 as far south as the site of Vladivostok, with the right to navigate the Amour river for military and other purposes, seemed to open an auspicious way for the absorption of Manchuria by Russia, a very desirable country having an area of four hundred thousand square miles and vast deposits of coal, iron and other minerals and containing "the promise and potency of a splendid industrial future." There was no doubt that while the Chino-Japanese War was in progress that Russia had resolved to obtain the whole of Manchuria and that she also contemplated absorbing Korea with its valuable harbors, which were far superior to the port of Vladivostok, which is frozen over completely for five months of every year.

Russia's Railway Concessions from China in Manchuria.

The starting-point in the recent rivalry between Russia and Japan was the Treaty of Shimonoseki in April, 1895, by which Japan obtained from China the possession of southern Manchuria, along with Russia's subsequent action by which Japan was deprived of the chief fruits of her victory over China. Russia had asserted that China's integrity must be preserved—that is, until China could be annexed to the Russian Empire. As compensation for confining the Japanese to their native islands, Russia obtained from China the railway and other concessions in Manchuria which led directly to the Russo-Japanese rivalry which ended in war.

China's Integrity.

China's integrity was the point insisted upon by the Great European Powers at the end of the Chino-Japanese War in 1895. China's integrity was insisted upon by the same Great Powers also at the time of their suppression of the great Boxer outbreak in China in 1900. During these five years many things transpired that had a bearing upon the situation between Russia and Japan. In the construction of the Manchurian Railway, in the operations of the Russo-Chinese Bank and in all the devices in which Russia was so skillful, that Great European Power had built up a claim steadily and had strengthened her hold on Manchuria, notwithstanding all her promises to China, Japan and the world not to annex that Chinese province to her own dominion.

Great Britain's Rivalry with Russia.

Besides Russia, the leading Great Power of Europe concerned in the Far Eastern question was Great Britain, which always had maintained that Russia's expansion eastward to the ice-free Pacific coast should be opposed as resolutely as her advance southward to the Mediterranean Sea or the Persian Gulf. Russia's acquisition of Port Arthur and Ta-lien-wan from China, in March, 1898, was not relished by Great Britain, as it disturbed very seriously the balance of power in the Far East and attacked the "equality of opportunity" for all nations which Great Britain always had upheld. To offset Russia's occupation of Port Arthur and Ta-lien-wan and Germany's acquisition of Kioa-Chau Bay, as well as France's gains in South China, Great Britain occupied Wei-hai-wei. Such was the famous scramble among the Great Powers of Europe for "leases" and "spheres of influence" in China, provoked by the insidious and subtle policy of Russia in her schemes of territorial aggrandizement in the Far East. One of the most important circumstances connected with the great Boxer uprising in China in 1900 and its results was the coming of the United States upon the scene in the Far East, with its insistence upon the same "open door" policy for international commerce in that quarter of the world as advocated by Great Britain, as a checkmate upon the "sphere of influence" scheme inaugurated by Russia, Germany and France.

Franco-Russian and Anglo-Japanese Alliances.

The Chinese characterized the Franco-Russian alliance of 1895 as a coalition of freebooters and buccaneers for mutual support in the contemplated partition of China. In the spring of 1902 this Russo-French alliance was offset by an Anglo-Japanese alliance, the objects of which were the preservation of peace in the Far East and the protection of the interests of Japan, Korea and China; the prevention of war between Russia and Japan, and the prevention of France or any other power coming to Russia's aid to crush Japan. The effect of this Japanese-British alliance was "to give a new turn to the diplomacy and politics of all Eastern Asia and to change the angle of vision of the Cabinet Ministers of the West."

Russia's Occupation of Manchuria.

As before stated, China's integrity was insisted upon by the great powers of the world after the suppression of the Boxer rising. In accordance with the terms of the Manchurian Treaty, signed by the diplomatic representatives of China and Russia in April, 1902, the Russian troops were to evacuate Manchuria within a year and a half—a result of the British-Japanese alliance and of the resolute insistence of the United States for the "open door" in the Far East. Russia gave various pretexts for her continued military occupation of Manchuria in violation of her solemn treaty with China and for her constant reinforcement of her army in that Tartar province of China. It

was very evident that she never seriously intended to retire her troops from Manchuria, as she had invested millions of money in that province and as many Russian people had settled there, while the province was of so much value to her in a geographical point of view to the protection of Russian interests on the Pacific coast of Asia.

Attitude of the Great Powers.

Japan was the main local protector of Mongolian interests; while her powerful ally, Great Britain, was her associate in that sphere. Germany and France were Russia's allies in the Far East. The United States had an interest in the commercial question involved in the situation. Both Great Britain and the United States were dissatisfied with Russia's attitude in Manchuria, but naturally Japan took the lead in checkmating Russia's schemes of aggrandizement in the Far East.

Russo-Japanese Rivalry Over Korea.

Russia's persistent meddling with Korea, especially since the close of the Chino-Japanese War, had aroused Japan to aggressive measures far more than had the Russian occupation of Manchuria. Both Russia and Japan were bound by treaty obligations to maintain the independence of Korea, but Russia's course in Manchuria and her commercial advances in Korea had aroused the most profound distrust on the part of Japanese statesmen. During the years 1903 and 1904 long and weary negotiations took place between the Russian and Japanese governments on the Korean question, Russia giving evasive answers to Japan's inquiries and evidently delaying a decisive answer until her armaments on sea and land were prepared fully for hostilities. While seemingly trying to settle the issues between them by diplomacy, the two powers were preparing for open hostilities, the Russians constantly pouring troops into Manchuria. The great issues involved were the independence of Japan and the restoration of Manchuria to China, along with the preservation of the Chinese Empire and Korea and the maintenance of the "open door" for trade in the Far East. Japan rightly feared that if Russia should annex Manchuria, Korea and China that the independence of Japan itself would be menaced; that if Manchuria were annexed to Russia the absorption of China by Russia would be inevitable, and if Korea also were annexed to Russia the days of Japan's independent existence would be numbered. Japan, therefore, concluded that war must come sooner or later, and therefore the sooner the better. The sympathies of the British and American people, therefore, were with Japan, both because they believed that her cause was just and because she stood for the "open door," thus striving to safeguard interests which were also the interests of Great Britain and the United States, Japan having resolutely pursued the policy enunciated by Secretary of State Hay's circular of 1900 and which formed the basis of the Anglo-Japanese agreement of 1902.

Diplomatic Rupture.

The long and tedious diplomacy between Russia and Japan was cut short very suddenly at the end of the first week of February, 1904. After waiting patiently for almost three weeks for an answer to a diplomatic note of January 13th, the Japanese government decided upon the last resort; and on the afternoon of February 7th M. Kurino, the Japanese Minister at St. Petersburg, called upon the Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs and formally announced that his government had directed him to break off diplomatic relations with the Czar's government, and he demanded his passports.

Its Result.

While believing that Russia's reply to Japan's last diplomatic note would not be acceptable to Japan, the diplomatic world was surprised at Japan's action in breaking off diplomatic relations so abruptly. The Japanese Minister at St. Petersburg left the Russian capital as quickly as possible, leaving Japanese interests in the hands of the United States Minister in that capital; while the Russian Minister at Tokio was recalled, thus completing the diplomatic rupture.

Russian Warships Injured at Port Arthur.

On the very day of the diplomatic rupture at St. Petersburg—Sunday, February 7, 1904—a Japanese fleet took possession of the port of Masanpho, on the south-eastern coast of Korea; and on the night of the 8th and on the 9th the war was opened in dead earnest at Port Arthur. That great Russian stronghold in the Far East was defended by massive fortifications and a strong Russian garrison under General Stoessel and by a fleet of thirty Russian warships, including five battleships and five cruisers, along with several torpedo-boats and torpedo-boat destroyers. It was not known that the Japanese were in the vicinity, and it was not expected that they would be there for several days. Evidently the Russians considered themselves as secure as in time of peace. Only one searchlight was at work, and there were few patrol boats there. Suddenly, about midnight, explosions were heard, quickly followed by the roar of small cannon from the aroused Russian fleet. Japanese torpedo-boats had approached the Russian fleet unobserved and had succeeded in placing their explosives against the big battleships *Retvizan* and *Czarevitch* and the cruiser *Pallada*. These three Russian warships were injured very seriously by the explosions, being practically disabled for the time and were reported as grounded near the inner harbor entrance. The two wrecked battleships were among the most modern in the Russian navy, the *Retvizan* having been built in the Cramps shipyards in Philadelphia in 1900, and the *Czarevitch* being the flagship of Admiral Wirenius, while the *Pallada* was a first-class protected cruiser. On the following day—February 9, 1904—a Japanese squadron of sixteen warships appeared at Port Arthur and bom-

barded the Russian fleet and the forts, and in the naval engagement which followed five more Russian cruisers were injured and disabled.

Russian Warships Injured at Chemulpo, Korea.

On the day after the Japanese naval successes at Port Arthur—February 9, 1904—another Japanese fleet made its appearance at the entrance of the harbor of Chemulpo, on the western coast of Korea, and demanded the surrender of the Russian cruiser *Variag* and the Russian gunboat *Korietz* within an hour; but, instead of complying with the Japanese demand, the two Russian war vessels came forward and gave battle, with the result that after an hour's fighting the Russian vessels retired and later were blown up and sunk, evidently by their own crews to prevent them from falling into the possession of the victorious Japanese, the crews escaping to other ships in the harbor. The *Variag* was recovered by the Japanese afterward and was towed to one of their own harbors. This cruiser was the flower of the Russian navy in many respects and had been built by the Cramps in Philadelphia.

Other Russian Losses at Sea.

Other disasters befell the Russians at sea, the torpedo transport *Yenisei* being blown up by accidentally striking a mine at Port Arthur, its captain and its crew of almost a hundred men being lost, while on this boat were the plans of all the mines and torpedoes in Port Arthur harbor. The Japanese also captured several Russian merchant ships or vessels loaded with coal or other supplies intended for Russian consumption.

Russian Naval Operations.

To offset their great losses at sea, the Russians were unable to inflict any very great damage on Japanese war or merchant ships. A Russian squadron of four cruisers, supposed to be the Vladivostok squadron, created some havoc in the northern portion of the Sea of Japan and was reported to have bombarded Hakodate on February 12, 1904, also sinking a merchant steamer flying the Japanese flag in the Tsugara Strait. The Japanese had closed this strait against any possible passage through it by laying a thorough system of mines. This Russian squadron retired, and little was heard of it thereafter, it being unable to join or aid the Russian fleet at Port Arthur.

Russia's Formal Declaration of War.

On February 10, 1904, Russia and Japan respectively issued their formal declarations of war against each other. The Czar's declaration justified Russia's position and criticised Japan's action by saying the following: "Without advising us of the fact that the breach of such relations would in itself mean an opening of warlike operations, the Japanese government gave orders to its torpedo-boats suddenly to attack our squadron standing in the outer harbor of the fortress of Port Arthur. Upon receiving reports from the Viceroy in the East of this we immediately commanded him to answer the Japanese challenge with armed force."

First Japanese Attempt to Bottle up Port Arthur.

Early on the morning of February 24, 1904, the Japanese attempted to bottle up the Russian fleet in Port Arthur harbor, in imitation of Hobson's exploit at Santiago harbor in the Spanish-American War. Five steamers, laden with stone and carrying explosives for the purpose of sinking them, came within view of the Russian searchlights and were fired upon very heavily, all five of the steamers being sunk and their crews being rescued by the Japanese torpedo-boats which accompanied them for that purpose under the protection of a Japanese squadron. At first the sinking of these steamers was heralded as the repulse of a heavy Japanese assault and therefore as a great Russian victory, being thus announced at St. Petersburg, where a *Te Deum* was ordered; but later reports showed the true nature of the affair—the intention of the Japanese to bottle up the inner harbor of Port Arthur. The effort was only partially successful, as Russian ships passed in and out of the harbor afterward. The same morning two Russian torpedo-boat destroyers were discovered detached from the Russian fleet, one being destroyed.

Bombardment of Port Arthur.

The Japanese fleet continued the investment of Port Arthur and daily bombarded its fortifications or its defending Russian fleet. The Japanese naval tactics seemed to be to avoid a conflict at close range, in which some of the Japanese vessels stood the possibility of being injured, but, instead, to shell the defenses of the stronghold and its protecting Russian fleet at safe range, which would be harassing and effective, until a Japanese land force could coöperate with the Japanese fleet in the reduction of this "Gibraltar of the East." The weakness of the Russian fleet enabled it only to act on the defensive, under the protection of the cannon of the forts. Though considered impregnable by the Russians, it was already in a critical condition and resembled a great military camp, all civilians having left the city. The Russian Viceroy Alexieff already had removed his headquarters from Port Arthur to Moukden, the capital of Manchuria, two hundred and fifty miles distant. The Russian garrison of Port Arthur was reinforced by thousands of Russian troops, and the whole line of the railway was guarded closely.

Japanese Troops Landed in Korea.

Immediately upon the seizure of Masanpho and Chemulpo, the chief ports respectively on the southern and western coasts of Korea, large bodies of Japanese troops were landed in that country; and Seoul, the Korean capital, was occupied by a Japanese force, while Japanese troops were landed in northern Korea at the same time. The Yalu river was practically the dividing line between the Japanese and Russian armies, and several skirmishes between small detachments of the

From Stereograph, copyright 1905 by Underwood & Underwood

JAPANESE HURLING A FIVE-HUNDRED-POUND SHELL AT PORT ARTHUR

hostile forces occurred. By a treaty with Korea, Japan assumed a protectorate over that small independent empire.

Russian Forces in Manchuria.

Before the outbreak of hostilities the Russians claimed to have two hundred thousand troops in Manchuria, but after the war had commenced they asserted the number was only seventy-five thousand. The only connection which the Russian forces in Manchuria had with their European base, five thousand miles distant, was the new Trans-Siberian Railroad, a single-track and poorly-equipped line; the trip from Moscow to Harbin, in Manchuria, occupied thirteen days; and the number of troops that could be transported in one day was only three thousand, instead of seven thousand, as expected. Severe winter conditions prevailed in Manchuria, and the question of supplies was a serious one for the Russians. The Russian troops in Manchuria were surrounded by a hostile population and by Manchurian guerrilla detachments animated by a desire for revenge. Harbin was made the base of the Russian army in Manchuria.

The Russian General Kuropatkin.

General Kuropatkin, the Russian Minister of War, was relieved of his Cabinet duties on February 22, 1904, and was appointed commander-in-chief of all the Russian military forces in the Far East. He was the best general of the time in the Russian army and had learned the art of war in the campaigns in Khiva and Khokand in 1873 and 1875 and in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-'78 under General Skobeleff. The Grand Dukes Alexis, Nicholas and Boris were to accompany General Kuropatkin in his campaigns against the Japanese in Manchuria.

American Diplomacy.

An important diplomatic incident connected with the war was the sending of a note by John Hay, the American Secretary of State, to the great powers of the world, asking them to coöperate with the United States in preserving the neutrality of China. Most of them promptly agreed to do so, Japan included; and Russia also agreed, after some delay. This action of the United States was recognized as a clever diplomatic exploit, tending to restrict the area of the war and serving notice on China, Japan and Russia that the great neutral powers expected these limits to be observed.

Siege and Bombardment of Port Arthur.

The main activity of the war during the months of February and March, 1904, were on the sea; and the Japanese had maintained the aggressive, Port Arthur being the center of interest. That great Russian stronghold in Manchuria suffered many bombardments from the Japanese warships; but its Russian garrison under General Stoessel maintained its defense resolutely. The Japanese squadron was near enough to throw tremendous shells into the city, but always was sufficiently cautious to keep out of range of the big guns of the forts.

These shells caused fires and explosions within the city and produced much loss of life. A three hours' bombardment on March 10th sent one hundred and fifty 12-inch shells from the Japanese warships, and one hundred and ten of these shells fell into the beleaguered city. As these shells weighed about eight hundred and fifty pounds each, they produced great havoc. On the same day there were two engagements between Russian and Japanese torpedo-boat destroyers in the vicinity of the besieged stronghold, both being desperate struggles, two of the contesting vessels being so close to each other that explosives were used on the deck of the Japanese boat. One Russian destroyer was captured after its crew of fifty-five men was almost annihilated, only four of the crew being taken prisoners and the boat being damaged so badly that it sank. All the boats of both sides were injured more or less.

Admiral Makaroff's Russian Squadron at Port Arthur.

Early in March, 1904, Admiral Makaroff assumed the command of the Russian squadron at Port Arthur, and he appeared disposed to adopt a more aggressive attitude. He caused the injured *Retvizan* to be moved from its position where it partly blocked the harbor, and he now was able to bring out his large vessels. The Russians could not understand where the Japanese squadron went whenever it retired from Port Arthur between attacks, as they had no trace of the squadron when it disappeared from their sight until it reappeared.

Land Operations in Korea and Manchuria.

Great preparations were being made for operations on land in Korea and Manchuria. Japanese troops were pouring into northern Korea as fast as they could be rushed forward, and the Russian main line fronted them on the Yalu river, though the opposing armies still were far apart. There were many rumors of skirmishes between scattered detachments of the opposing forces. Russian troops were arriving constantly in Manchuria over the Trans-Siberian Railway. There was a large Russian force at Niu-Chwang, near the Chinese frontier, to protect that important strategic point against the Japanese and to watch the Chinese, whom the Russians very much feared would make common cause with the Japanese. General Kuropatkin, the Russian commander-in-chief in the Far East, left Moscow on March 13, 1904, on his way across Siberia to the seat of war; and much was expected of him.

Red Cross, Etc.

There were pleasant sidelights in the sombre war picture. The Red Cross was well organized for efficient work in both the Russian and the Japanese armies, and large contributions were made to its funds, while many nurses offered their services. A sum equal to two and a half million dollars was subscribed in Moscow for various forms of patriotic purposes in connection with the war. One Russian nobleman offered a sum amounting to more than a million dollars for this purpose if

necessary. The Grand Duke Constantine's wife prepared seventeen thousand Easter eggs to provide each Russian sailor in the Far East with a souvenir; each containing a portrait of the Czar, a book, soap and towel, a tobacco pouch, note paper, etc., wrapped in a handkerchief bearing pictures of Peter the Great's boat and of Russian naval victories. The Czarina was providing similar gifts for every Russian soldier in the Far East, the Czar allowing her whatever she might need in the way of money for this purpose.

Loss of a Russian Battleship and Admiral Makaroff.

On April 13, 1904, the Russians experienced a very great disaster in the loss of the huge battleship *Petropavlovsk*, with Admiral Makaroff, the idol of the Russian navy, and his staff and almost six hundred of the crew by the explosion of a mine which sank the vessel with nearly all on board outside the harbor of Port Arthur after a fierce naval engagement. The Japanese had observed that the Russian vessels followed the same course in entering or leaving the harbor, evidently to avoid their own mines. On the dark and cloudy night of April 12th the Japanese torpedo-boat *Karyu Mara*, under a mine expert, Commander Oda, in spite of the Russian searchlights and patroling ships, approached close to the harbor and deposited mines along the course used by the Russian ships. At daybreak on the 13th a fight occurred outside the harbor between some Russian and Japanese torpedo-boat destroyers, one of the Russian vessels being sunk. The Russian fleet, consisting of fourteen warships, with Admiral Makaroff on board the *Petropavlovsk*, then came out of the inner harbor and attacked the six Japanese cruisers in the offing. The Japanese cruisers retired, pursued by the Russian fleet; but soon six huge Japanese battleships which had been stationed thirty miles out at sea, signalled by wireless telegraphy, approached for the purpose of cutting the Russian fleet out of the harbor. Thereupon the Russian fleet retired, and while the *Petropavlovsk* was moving slowly and was waiting for the weaker Russian ships to enter the harbor ahead of her she met her doom. She was near enough to the shore for watchers from the forts there to see her plainly. There was a dull boom, and the great battleship appeared to rise out of the water, followed by two other explosions, and in a moment the huge vessel turned turtle and sank in the water. The Russian battleship *Pobieda* also struck a mine, but was damaged only slightly. The Grand Duke Cyril, one of the Czar's cousins and heirs, had a narrow escape from death, being injured by the explosion and thrown into the water; but, being an athlete and of powerful build, he kept himself afloat until he was rescued by one of the smaller craft. Among those who perished in the water with the vessel's explosion was the famous Russian artist and painter of war scenes—Vassili Verestchagin.

Effect of the Disaster.

The Viceroy Alexieff at once proceeded to Port Arthur and took temporary command of the Russian fleet there. Vice-Admiral Skrydloff was summoned to St. Petersburg from the command of the Russian Black Sea fleet to take command of the Russian fleet at Port Arthur. The loss of one of the largest Russian battleships left the Russian navy in Far Eastern waters very much more weakened, with only two battleships in effective condition, thus obliging the Russians to act wholly on the defensive at sea and leaving the Japanese more than ever in control of the naval situation.

Second Japanese Attempt to Bottle up Port Arthur.

Not discouraged by their failure in their first effort in that direction, the Japanese again attempted to bottle up the Russian fleet at Port Arthur. Early on the morning of March 27, 1904, this second attempt was made, when four large merchant vessels, fitted with explosives for sinking, convoyed by six torpedo-boats, steered for the harbor entrance; the ships being armed with small rapid-fire guns to protect themselves against Russian torpedo-boats. They were revealed by the Russian searchlights and were subjected to a severe fire from the forts and the Russian guard-boats. A Russian torpedo-boat rammed the foremost Japanese vessel, driving it from its course; and eventually all the Japanese merchant ships sank too far from the channel to effect their purpose. The gallant Japanese crews engaged in this desperate venture escaped in small boats to their own torpedo craft, though there were many lives lost among them. A lively conflict with the Russian torpedo-boats followed.

The Japanese Hero, Commander Takaso Hirose.

The Japanese naval hero of the war thus far was Commander Takaso Hirose, who was killed in the second Japanese attempt to bottle up the harbor of Port Arthur. The Japanese highly appreciated the action of the Russian authorities at Port Arthur in honoring the remains of this heroic Japanese commander with a military funeral after they had recovered his remains. The Japanese found a fragment of his body and brought it to Tokio, where it was honored with a public funeral in accordance with the Shinto ceremonial on April 13, 1904. Already the Japanese were looking forward toward obtaining the remains interred at Port Arthur after the end of the war and bringing them back to Japan.

Russian Seizure of Niu-Chwang.

The Russian Viceroy Alexieff issued an order on March 28, 1904, establishing martial law at Niu-Chwang, one of the Manchurian ports which had been regarded as neutral, but whose position was so strategically important to the Russians that they had treated it as belonging to them, as it defended the head of the Liao-tung gulf and was an obstruction to any invasion from Chinese territory, also being one of the chief fortified places of the Russians, on the Pacific coast in Eastern Asia.

Russians Driven Out of Korea.

On March 28, 1904, the Japanese encountered the Russians at Chong-ju, Korea, where a brief engagement ensued, which ended in the retreat of the Russians. The Japanese then continued their advance unopposed, and on April 3rd they occupied the important town of Wi-ju, which the Russians had evacuated on their approach. The Russians then retreated across the Yalu river, leaving the whole of Korea in possession of the Japanese. The Japanese army along the Yalu then numbered about forty-five thousand men, and two other Japanese armies of equal size were ready to move. The Russian troops in the Far East numbered three hundred thousand.

Japanese Passage of the Yalu River.

In April, 1904, the land operations assumed great importance. The last of April the Japanese succeeded in crossing the Yalu. On May 1st the Japanese made a direct attack on the Russian lines at Kin-lin-chang. After desperate fighting the Russians were defeated. An-tung was evacuated by the Russians and occupied by the Japanese. The Russian loss in killed and wounded was over three thousand; the Japanese loss was less.

Japanese Advance.

The first Japanese army, under General Kuroki, now numbered one hundred thousand men. The Russians retreated to Feng-Wang-Cheng, the "gate of Korea," where they received heavy reinforcements. But the Japanese pressed forward and occupied Feng-Wang-Cheng on May 6th, the Russians falling back toward Liao-Yang, after exploding their magazines, but leaving large quantities of hospital stores and equipment. Many Russians were taken prisoners.

Siege and Investment of Port Arthur.

While the first Japanese army, under General Kuroki, was so successful in the region of the Yalu, the second Japanese army, under General Oku, landed on the Liao-tung peninsula on May 5 and 6, 1904. This force soon reached the lines of the Chinese Eastern Railroad, completely cutting off Russian communication between Port Arthur and the North. The Russian Viceroy Alexieff and his staff had left Port Arthur only the day before.

Another Japanese Invasion.

A third Japanese army, under General Nodzu, landed at Takushan, in a position to coöperate with either of the other two Japanese armies. Port Arthur and Liao-Yang apparently were the two objective points of the Japanese. Port Arthur, with a crippled Russian fleet in a harbor partly blockaded, was isolated wholly from the outside world and cut off from all aid from land or sea, so that the beleaguered port was obliged to rely upon its own resources. The Russian garrison inside this "Gibraltar of the East," numbered about twenty thousand men; while the crews of the Russian warships in the harbor numbered about ten thousand men. Heavy cannon from the disabled Russian ships were

mounted on the shore. The food supplies of the besieged city were sufficient to last many months, and Chinese junks still were able to smuggle in additional supplies. The outer defenses of Port Arthur were at Kinchou, about twenty-five miles north, where the isthmus is less than four miles wide and where it was fortified strongly. Liao-Yang, where General Kuropatkin was preparing to make a stand against the Japanese, was a walled town about forty miles south of Moukden, the seat of the Russian headquarters.

Destruction of Dalny.

On May 12, 1904, Alexieff reported to Nicholas II. that the Russians had blown up the docks and piers at Dalny to hinder the Japanese landing.

Third Japanese Attempt to Bottle up Port Arthur.

On May 3, 1904, the Japanese made a third determined attempt to bottle up Port Arthur harbor. In the midst of a dense fog, eight Japanese fireships, each armed with rapid-fire cannon and each laden with stone and combustibles, convoyed by five torpedo-boats, undertook this enterprise. Four of the fireships were blown up by submarine mines and four by shells from the Russian shore batteries or by torpedoes from Russian torpedo-boats. On account of the high winds and waves and the vigorous Russian defense, the Japanese torpedo-boats could not save even one man from the crews of four of the fireships, and only about half of the entire number of the crews were saved. The crews numbered one hundred and fifty-nine men, of whom forty-four returned safely, twenty-four being wounded and fifteen being killed. All the families of the killed and missing were pensioned.

Loss of Two Japanese Warships.

The first really serious Japanese disaster of the war at sea occurred on May 5, 1904, when two Japanese warships were lost—the battleship *Hatsuse* and the cruiser *Yoshimo*. The *Hatsuse*, Admiral Mashuri's flagship, one of the most formidable battleships of the Japanese navy, was cruising off Port Arthur and was about ten miles south-east of the port when she struck a mine and was damaged seriously. She signaled for help, when almost instantly she struck another mine, thus causing her to sink in half an hour. Admiral Mashuri and three hundred of the crew were saved by torpedo-boats and other vessels which came to their rescue. The loss of this great battleship was a serious matter for the Japanese, as it was one of the six battleships constructed on modern plans within eight years, which made up a homogeneous and formidable fleet, and its loss thus deprived the Japanese of a sixth part of their effective battleship force. On the same day—May 5, 1904—the Japanese cruisers *Kesaga* and *Yoshimo* collided in a fog off Port Arthur and the *Yoshimo* sank, only ninety of her crew being saved.

Russian Vladivostok Squadron.

The Russian squadron at Vladivostok, consisting of three armored cruisers and one protected cruiser, made a few sorties from that port late in April, 1904, doing slight damage in the Sea of Japan, sinking two Japanese trading vessels and overhauling a Japanese transport, the *Kinshiu-Maru*, with coal, war munitions and a detachment of one hundred and thirty Japanese troops on board, April 27th. The crew and the six officers of the Japanese military detachment surrendered; but the Japanese soldiers locked themselves in a cabin and refused to surrender, and when the Russians were ordered to leave the vessel the Japanese soldiers came out and began to fire at them. The boat was sunk by a mechanical mine, the Japanese continuing to shout defiance and to fire their small arms as they were being swallowed up by the waves. Admiral Skrydloff, who had been assigned to the command of the Russian fleet at Port Arthur, was unable to reach that port when he arrived in the Far East, as the place had been invested completely by the Japanese. Consequently he was obliged to go to Vladivostok, where he arrived on May 22d. The small Russian squadron there was weakened by the disabling of the protected cruiser *Bogatyr*, which struck upon the rocks there.

Battles of Vafangow and Telissu.

About the middle of May, 1904, the Japanese defeated the Russians after a three day's battle in the Liao-tung peninsula, commencing with the battle of Vafangow on May 13th and ending with the battle of Telissu on May 15th. The sites of these battlefields were about a hundred miles south of Liao-Yang. The Russian force in these battles was commanded by General Stakelberg and numbered about thirty-five thousand men; while the Japanese army was twice as large, numbering seventy thousand men. The fighting was most desperate and obstinate on both sides, the victorious Japanese and the defeated Russians both exhibiting the most daring valor and the most resolute determination. The Russians lost two thousand killed and ten thousand wounded and taken prisoners. The Japanese loss was only one thousand men in killed, wounded and prisoners. The fighting ended with a flank movement on the part of the Japanese which threatened the capture of the entire Russian force, and General Kuropatkin went south to the relief of General Stakelberg's imperiled army.

Activity of the Russian Vladivostok Squadron.

The Russian Vladivostok squadron sailed southward in May, 1904, going as far as the Straits of Korea and the coast of Japan. Vice-Admiral Skrydloff left Vladivostok with three cruisers and several torpedo-boats, eluding the vigilance of the Japanese vessels which were watching that port. These Russian vessels were reported off the Islands of Oki, in the Sea of Japan, on June 14th, when they came

in contact with Japanese transports which were conveying troops and supplies from the Japanese ports to the Japanese armies in Korea and Manchuria. These Japanese transports escaped from the Russian squadron, which destroyed two Japanese transports off the island of Shiro, one of the Oki group, on the following day, June 15th; one thousand of the fourteen hundred Japanese soldiers on board the transports being lost, along with horses and large quantities of supplies. Three other Japanese transports in the vicinity escaped. The Japanese complained that one of their transports was raked by heavy fire and sunk without permitting noncombatants to leave the ships. Japanese cruisers sought to come in contact with the Russian warships, but the Russian vessels escaped northward and at last accounts were reported near the Tsugari Strait, the Japanese warships being between the Russian vessels and this base. The Russian cruiser *Novik* and ten Russian torpedo-boat destroyers came out of Port Arthur harbor on June 14th, driving back a Japanese flotilla of torpedo-boats and torpedo-boat destroyers which were engaged in a bombardment and reconnaissance a few miles from the harbor.

Battle of Kinchou and Capture of Dalny.

The Japanese struck a hard blow against Port Arthur by a great victory which they won over the Russians in the battle of Kinchou, in the narrowest part of the Liao-tung peninsula, on June 25 and 26, 1904, driving them from their strong defenses on Nan-Shan Hill, thus forcing them out of their first barrier in the defense of Port Arthur. This place was one of great natural strength, and its natural strategical advantages had been augmented by strong intrenchments, heavy cannon, mines, with miles of tangled barbed wire; but, in spite of all these obstacles, the Japanese were victorious, after sixteen hours' fighting on June 26th. The Japanese fought with the most reckless heroism and with the utmost desperation in their assaults. The losses were very great on both sides. This Japanese victory was followed by the evacuation of Dalny by the Russians, who fled from that port hastily after they had destroyed many of the docks and warehouses.

Russian Port Arthur Fleet.

The Russian Port Arthur fleet made a sortie from the harbor on June 23, 1904, but was attacked by the Japanese fleet and driven back into the harbor. The Russian fleet afterward ran the blockade and ventured out of the harbor and returned. Four Russian battleships, five cruisers and torpedo-boats made voyages to the open sea and returned. It was reported that one torpedo-boat made three trips to Yinkow. A number of Chinese junks, carrying provisions, eluded the Japanese blockading fleet, one junk landing five thousand sacks of flour. It was reported also that a cargo of coal had been landed.

Second Battle of Vafangow.

On June 16, 1904, was fought the second battle of Vafangow, in which the Japanese won a signal victory. This was the bloodiest battle of the war thus far. It was brought about by the Russian efforts to force the line from Pitsewu to Plan-tien, forming the northern gate of the Liao-tung peninsula. The Russian fighting line consisted of twenty-five battalions of infantry and seventeen squadrons of cavalry, with ninety-eight cannon. These were reinforced later. The Russians made a general advance, scaling the precipitous scarps and pushing back the Japanese to Tafangshin; but the arrival of Japanese reinforcements and the timely movements of the Japanese cavalry threatened the Russian left and rear, thus giving the Japanese the advantage, so that the entire Japanese line gained ground simultaneously, and by three o'clock in the afternoon the Russians commenced a retreat which the Japanese vigorous fire converted into a total rout, although the nature of the ground was an obstacle to pursuit.

Fighting for the Mountain Passes.

In an action on June 27, 1904, the Japanese routed ten thousand Russians, after stubborn fighting at Fen-Shui Pass, twenty-five miles from Hai-tcheng. The Russian position was a very strong one and commanded the Shimu-tcheng road. In this conflict the Russian losses again were heavier than those of the Japanese. The Russians burned their warehouses at Shan-Tasu before retreating. Two days afterward the Japanese forced the passage of the Mo-Tien Pass, fifty miles south-east of Liao-Yang, their object being to cut the Russian communication northward of Liao-Yang, while General Kuropatkin was operating in the vicinity of Hai-tcheng at the head of practically the entire Russian forces at his command.

Battle near Port Arthur.

On June 26 and 27, 1904, a great battle was fought near Port Arthur on land. The Japanese were victorious, and on the morning of the 28th they occupied certain heights within ten miles of Port Arthur. The two Japanese divisions which attacked Port Arthur consisted of forty thousand men and an independent artillery corps. As a matter of precaution the Japanese landed a division of ten thousand men on one of the Elliot group of islands; and on June 28th they landed the Sixth Division, composed of twenty thousand men, at Kerr Bay. The Elliot Islands are about ten miles south-east of Pitsewu and about sixty-five miles north-east of Port Arthur, while Kerr Bay is about thirty-six miles from Port Arthur and six miles from Kinchou. On July 9, 1904, the Russians evacuated Kai-chow, after a conflict of two days. The Japanese advanced steadily and occupied the town.

Russian Evacuation of Kai-chow.

Russian Vladivostok Squadron.

In the meantime the Russian Vladivostok squadron under Admiral Skrydloff had been raiding the Sea of Japan, thus forcing all the Japanese navy transports to be accompanied by cruisers. Meanwhile

Russian Warships on the Red Sea.

two Russian warships, the *Smolensk* and the *St. Petersburg*, were holding up British and German ships in the Red Sea, searching them for contraband of war; and, as a result, grave international complications were feared. The *Smolensk* and the *St. Petersburg* were from the Russian Black Sea fleet and passed through the Dardanelles as merchant ships, afterward assuming their true character. The Treaty of Berlin, of 1878, forbade the passage of war vessels through the Dardanelles. It was reported that these Russian vessels seized a British merchant ship and placed a prize crew on board. Skillful diplomacy finally warded off the threatened international complications.

Dispersal of the Russian Port Arthur Fleet.

On August 10, 1904, the Russian Port Arthur fleet made a desperate effort to break through the cordon of Japanese warships at the harbor entrance; six huge battleships, four cruisers, eight torpedo-boats comprising the Russian squadron which thus came out of the harbor; but they were encountered by forty-seven Japanese warships, consisting of battleships, cruisers and torpedo-boats, and after a fierce engagement the Russian squadron was defeated most disastrously and dispersed. The Russian torpedo-boat destroyer *Ryeshitelni* sought refuge in the Chinese port of Chefoo, where she was disarmed by the Chinese authorities, but was seized afterward as a prize by the Japanese torpedo-boat destroyers which had pursued her to Chefoo. Russia claimed that China should have prevented the Japanese seizure of the vessel, but the Japanese claimed that she was hiding in a neutral port as a fully-armed vessel. Five Russian warships—the battleship *Czarevitch*, the cruiser *Novik* and three torpedo-boat destroyers—fled to the German port of Kiao-Chau, in China. The *Czarevitch* lost over two hundred in killed and wounded; Admiral Wittsoeft, the commander of the fleet, being among the killed. This large battleship was damaged so seriously that she was unseaworthy, and she was disarmed by the German authorities under international law and interned for the rest of the war. The *Novik* left before the other Russian vessels arrived, after a very short stay, when she was supposed to have taken a supply of coal and was reported to have sailed to Vladivostok. Of the other Russian vessels in this hapless fight the cruiser *Askold* and another cruiser reached Shanghai, China, and the cruiser *Pallada* was lost, while the remaining five battleships and the cruiser *Diana* returned to Port Arthur, the battleship *Retzivan* being damaged very seriously. On August 14th the Japanese squadron of four cruisers under Admiral Kamimura, sailing from the Korean coast, sighted the three Russian cruisers *Rossia, Gromoboi* and *Rurik*, of the Russian Vladivostok fleet; and a running sea fight ensued, which ended in the sinking of the *Rurik* and the flight of the other two Russian cruisers to Vladivostok in a very much damaged condition. Six

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JAPANESE WAR BALLOON

hundred of the *Rurik's* crew were rescued from watery graves by the crews of the Japanese vessels.

Raid of the Russian Vladivostok Squadron.

On July 20, 1904, the Russian Vladivostok squadron under Admiral Skrydloff sailed through the Tsugara Strait, between the largest two of the Japanese Islands, along the eastern coast of Japan and below Yokohama, and into the chief route of Japanese commerce from the east, thus making a bold dash of a thousand miles from the fleet's base at Vladivostok and capturing many Japanese merchant vessels, and returning to Vladivostok nine days later. The most notable incident connected with this Russian sea raid was the sinking of the *Knight Commander,* a ship under the British flag, with a cargo from the American Pacific ports. The owners of the ship and the cargo protested against the sinking of the vessel; but the prize court at Vladivostok justified the act on the ground that the cargo consisted mainly of railway material destined to Chemulpo, Korea, and presumably for use on the military railway in course of construction from Seoul to the Yalu river. The *Arabia,* another Pacific ship, was seized by the Russians and taken to Vladivostok; but, after that part of the cargo, chiefly flour, intended for Japanese ports was removed, the vessel was permitted to proceed on its way to China. Both Great Britain and the United States protested to the Russian government against these seizures.

Sinking of the Knight Commander.

Seizure of the Arabia.

Fighting at Port Arthur.

In the meantime the Japanese were drawing their lines very close to Port Arthur, the intervening distance being covered with mines and obstructions and being defended by the strong forts of the harbor. Great battles occurred on July 27, 28 and 30, 1904, by which the Japanese advanced their lines still closer to the great fortress, though they lost heavily in killed and wounded. Later assaults by the Japanese advanced their lines still closer, to within two miles of the inner harbor. One hundred thousand Japanese troops under General Nogi by this time invested the fortress, while the Russian garrison defending the fortress numbered less than fifteen thousand. The Japanese called upon General Stoessel, the Russian commandant, to surrender the fortress with the Russian ships in the harbor, offering to allow him and his garrison to join the main Russian army under General Kuropatkin. The Russian commandant indignantly rejected the demand, as he also did an offer to allow the noncombatants to come out of the beleaguered city.

General Kuropatkin's Retreat to Liao-Yang.

In the meantime the main Russian army of almost two hundred thousand men under General Kuropatkin was forced back gradually to Liao-Yang by the three Japanese armies operating from the east, west and south and together numbering almost two hundred and fifty thousand men, all under the chief command of Field-Marshal Oyama, with

Generals Kuroki, Nodzu and Oku as the respective commanders of the three Japanese armies. The Russians had fortified Liao-Yang very strongly. The Japanese sought to get in General Kuropatkin's rear and between his army and Moukden, the capital of Manchuria. The Japanese occupied Hai-tcheng on August 5, 1904, and afterward took possession of Simou-tcheng, the site of one of the many battles which were fought between the two armies in the race for Liao-Yang. The Russian line was sixty miles in extent. General Kuropatkin saved his army by his northward retreat, but he lost prestige thereby. The Japanese army had more than three hundred heavy pieces of artillery.

Battle of Liao-Yang.

Finally, during the last week of August and the first week of September, 1904, the great and long-expected battle of Liao-Yang was fought—one of the greatest battles of the world's history. Thus was added another to the list of the world's great battles of modern times, ranking with the great modern European battles of Leipsic, Solferino, Sadowa, Sedan and Gravelotte as to the numbers engaged. At Leipsic Napoleon had one hundred and fifty thousand and the allies two hundred and fifty thousand. At Solferino the Franco-Italian army and the Austrian army each had about two hundred thousand. At Sadowa the Austrians and the Prussians each also had about two hundred thousand. At Sedan the French had about one hundred and forty thousand and the Germans about two hundred and fifty thousand. At Gravelotte the French had almost two hundred thousand and the Germans over that number. As to duration Liao-Yang exceeded any battle of history up to that time, lasting about ten days. We have seen that after their defeat at Hai-tcheng, August 2, 1904, the Russian army under General Kuropatkin retreated northward to the fortifications of Liao-Yang, where they resolved to make a stand against the three Japanese armies under Generals Kuroki, Nodzu and Oku, all three under the supreme command of Field-Marshal Oyama. After a few weeks' rest during the rainy season the Japanese resumed operations on August 23, 1904, and the next day they began a general advance against the Russian lines covering all points, General Kuroki advancing from the east, General Nodzu from the south-east and General Oku from the south. There was continuous fighting on August 25th and 26th. General Kuroki, whose first operations were directed at Liao-Dian-Shan, about twenty miles south-east of Liao-Yang, flanked the Russians and drove them from Anping with heavy loss. General Oku compelled the Russians to evacuate An-Shan-Shan, their strongest position on the south. Though General Nodzu had not succeeded in maintaining his position, the result of the two days' fighting was to compel the Russians to fall back behind the main defenses of Liao-Yang. As soon as

possible the Japanese followed up their successes; and on August 30th, from dawn till nightfall, they bombarded and cannonaded the Russian position, the Russians replying with their artillery, so that the thunders of thirteen hundred cannon on both sides shook the earth with their reverberations. There also was the fiercest hand-to-hand fighting with small arms, the Russians repelling all assaults and both sides suffering heavy losses. In the midst of the engagement General Kuroki, by a skillful flank movement, threw his army across the Taitse river at Sakankankwantun, about twenty miles east of Liao-Yang, thus forcing General Kuropatkin to take a portion of his army across the Taitse river to the north side of that stream to cut off General Kuroki from the other Japanese forces, but the Russian commander's plans failed. After fierce fighting near the Yentai mines on September 1st and 2d the Japanese were victorious over the Russians under General Orloff, who was wounded, some of the Russian regiments losing over half of their men. These Japanese successes and the menace to his communications obliged General Kuropatkin's army to evacuate Liao-Yang, which was occupied by the Japanese on the evening of September 4th. Twenty-five thousand Russians under General Stakelberg still were on the south bank of the Taitse river and to the east of Liao-Yang, in danger of being cut off from the Russian main army; but General Stakelberg extricated his force from its dangerous situation and held back General Kuroki in a severe action at Yentai. On the east side of the railroad the Japanese frequently assailed the Russian rear-guard, threatening their communications with Moukden; but by September 7th General Kuropatkin's whole army had arrived safely at Moukden, without losing any cannon or supplies. Thus the great battle of Liao-Yang ended in a Japanese victory. The losses on both sides from August 26th to September 7th were estimated as high as sixty thousand. The Japanese officially reported their own losses as seventeen thousand five hundred and thirty-nine, and the Russian official figures gave Kuropatkin's losses as twenty-two thousand and fifty-six men, thirteen cannon and thirty million dollars worth of material, including fortifications.

Fighting at Port Arthur.

For five days, August 27-31, 1904, the Japanese assailed Port Arthur, losing eight thousand men in these assaults, while the Russians lost three thousand. Some forts were taken by the Japanese and retaken by the Russians. The Japanese intrenched at points commanding the city and tunneled under the fortifications. The Japanese ships gradually approached nearer to the city and dropped shells into it. The Russian garrison still numbered about twelve thousand men. General Stoessel rejected all Japanese demands for the surrender of the

fortress and threatened to shoot any other envoys bringing such demands.

Japanese Movements.

After their great victory at Liao-Yang the Japanese spent three days in burning and burying their dead, after which they resumed operations, leaving a strong garrison in the fortifications of Liao-Yang and throwing up intrenchments at the Yentai mines, while also taking a strong position at Bentsiputze, twenty miles south-east of Moukden. During the last half of September the Japanese were executing a general encircling movement, extending their western flank across to the west bank of the Hun river. On the last day of that month they made a simultaneous movement towards Moukden and Sinmintu. In the meantime there had been many slight encounters, and the Cossacks had kept in touch with the Japanese outposts and had interfered with the Japanese plans.

Russian Advance.

On Sunday, October 2, 1904, General Kuropatkin announced an advance of his army, reading an address to this effect personally from the steps of his train at Moukden, after a solemn religious service, and distributing printed copies of this address to his troops, thus arousing excitement and enthusiasm among them. General Kuropatkin had received reinforcements, thus making his army numerically stronger than the Japanese forces; the Russian troops about Moukden now numbering two hundred and seventy thousand men and the Japanese troops about two hundred and sixty thousand, of whom only one hundred and fifty thousand were north of the Taitse river, the remainder being at or near Liao-Yang.

Battle of Sahke.

On October 4, 1904, General Kuropatkin began his advance southward, in two great armies, one on each side of the railroad, which was available for supplies. As the Russians approached the Japanese outposts the latter retired. The Russians occupied Sahke, on the railroad, ten miles south of Moukden, on October 6th; while the Japanese lines extended fifty-two miles, from Bentsiputze on the east, through Yentai and across the railway, to the banks of the Hun river on the west. The great battle of Sahke really commenced on October 10th, when the Japanese halted the retreating movement and the two armies encountered each other north of the Yentai railroad station and also at Penshiu. There was severe fighting at different points on the long lines, without any decisive results; but on October 12th the Japanese drove the Russians back. Severe conflicts occurred on October 12th and 14th, and the fighting lasted twelve days, October 9-21, 1904, ending in another Japanese victory. The Russian losses during this long-continued battle were stated officially as forty-five thousand eight hundred in killed, wounded and missing; while the Japanese claimed to have

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JAPANESE INFANTRY READY TO MOVE INTO THE FIRING LINE

found thirteen thousand three hundred and thirty-three dead Russians in various portions of the field.

Assaults on Port Arthur.

For five days, September 19-23, 1904, there was desperate fighting at Port Arthur, along the whole line, during which time various positions were taken and retaken. After repeatedly attacking Fort High Mountain, a very important Russian position, day and night, the Japanese finally occupied it on the night of September 22d; but the Russians reoccupied it the next day, after General Stoessel had called for volunteers to retake it, there being ample responses to his call. Russian officers and private soldiers carried hand grenades, and one lieutenant and his detachment threw such missiles into the Japanese intrenchments, causing terrible slaughter and creating a panic among the Japanese. The total Japanese losses were very heavy during this fighting. The Japanese dug a tunnel under the Russian intrenchments. On October 22, 1904, the Japanese made a general assault on Port Arthur, which continued until the 30th, when a general battle followed, the Japanese assailing the eastern side and gaining the moats of the principal forts which had been attacked, but finally they were driven back from the hills by the Russians. Nevertheless, the Japanese were drawing nearer to the center of the Russian position and were drawing nearer still by means of mines. The Japanese incessantly bombarded the fortress, and their shells destroyed a ship in the harbor and fired an arsenal. The inner defenses were still intact and out of the reach of the most persistent assaults. Occasional refugees stated that food was scarce and disease rampant in the beleaguered city. General Stoessel refused all demands for surrender and said that he could maintain his position until relief could come to him from the Russian Baltic fleet.

Russia's Baltic Fleet.

The Russian Baltic fleet under Admiral Rojestvensky finally started on its long journey to the Far East, sailing from Libau on October 16, 1904. This fleet consisted of seven battleships, six large cruisers, eight torpedo-boat destroyers and several transports, the whole fleet numbering more than thirty ships. While in the North Sea this Russian fleet attacked a number of British fishing boats, believing them to be Japanese torpedo-boats—an incident which threatened complications between Russia and Great Britain, as the latter demanded reparation for the outrage. After much diplomacy Russia made a due apology to Great Britain, and the question of damages was submitted to the arbitration of an international commission, in accordance with the provisions of The Hague Peace Conference. The Russian Baltic fleet left Vigo, Spain, on November 1, 1904, part of the fleet going by way of the Suez Canal and the remainder around the Cape of Good Hope. On November 16th the second division of this fleet, consisting of four

North Sea Incident.

cruisers, two auxiliary cruisers and five torpedo-boat destroyers, left Libau, on its way to the Far East. These Russian ships stopped only at French ports to coal.

Operations About Moukden.

After the great battle of Sahke, October 9-21, 1904, both armies strengthened their positions and reinforced their ranks, the Japanese having over sixty thousand reinforcements. The Japanese threw up some intrenchments, in some cases preparing two lines of these. In some parts of their respective lines the two armies were so near each other that both occupied the same villages and obtained water from the same springs. There were some heavy artillery duels and some spirited actions among advanced outposts, but there was no regular battle for some weeks, the weather being unfavorable for active military operations, both sides closely watching each other. Lone Tree Hill, often occupied by both armies, finally remained with the Russians. On November 10th the Japanese assumed the offensive on the left bank of the Hun river, but were driven back to their original lines. The next day they made a vigorous artillery assault, but made no advance. The Russian line extended eighty miles. On October 25th an imperial ukase was issued at St. Petersburg making General Kuropatkin commander-in-chief of all the Russian armies in the Far East. Alexieff remained Viceroy, but was ordered to St. Petersburg immediately.

Japanese Capture an Important Fort at Port Arthur.

On November 21 and 26, 1904, the Japanese army under General Nogi again assailed Port Arthur, but was repulsed each time. On November 27th the Japanese gained a great advantage by the capture of 203-Meter Hill, one of the high points from which heavy cannon could command the harbor. Both sides fought desperately for the possession of this hill. After heavy and concentrated bombardments, the Japanese made four charges between three and four o'clock, succeeding in the last charge in dislodging the Russians; but during the night the Russians made three counter attacks and drove out the Japanese forces. At dawn the next morning the Japanese renewed the attack; and at eight o'clock in the evening, November 28, 1904, after a series of rushes and counter rushes, advances and repulses, the Japanese again occupied the fort. Finally, at noon, on December 1, 1904, the Russians gave up their attacks on this hill and retired to inner positions.

Russian Fleet Again Destroyed.

The Japanese mounted heavy naval guns on 203-Meter Hill, and on December 9th they kept up a heavy bombardment on the Russian warships in Port Arthur harbor. Previously the Russian ships had found shelter from the Japanese fire behind Pei-Ya Mountain, but now they were able to do so no longer, and by December 12th the Japanese commander reported that the bombardment of the harbor was necessary no

MUTSUHITO, LATE MIKADO OF JAPAN

longer, as all the Russian warships there were disabled completely. The Russian battleship *Sevastopol* was moved into the outer harbor and was often attacked by the Japanese torpedo-boats outside, being rendered practically useless.

Siege and Fall of Port Arthur.

Finally, after a siege of about eleven months and many desperate assaults, Port Arthur fell into the possession of the Japanese at the opening of the year 1905. This siege was one of the most famous in the world's history. The Japanese army entered the city on January 4th, and the next day the two commanders met each other at a miserable hovel, the only undamaged house remaining in the village of Shuishi, each recognizing the other as a brave man and a good soldier, and the exchange of courtesies was very cordial but solemn. On January 13th General Nogi and his army made an imposing triumphal entry into the city, the line being five miles long. The mass of the Russian garrison were against surrender and were surprised and chagrined at the result. The closing words of General Stoessel's dispatch to the Czar announcing surrender were "Great sovereign, pardon us. We have done all that is within human power. Judge us with clemency." After the battle of Nan-Shan Hill, on May 26, 1904, the Japanese lost fifty-five thousand men, of whom eleven thousand were killed. At the beginning of the siege the Russians had seventy-five thousand soldiers, sailors and civilians at Port Arthur, of whom ten thousand were killed or died. The number taken prisoners by the Japanese was almost thirty thousand. Five thousand Russian laborers were sent to Chefoo, China. Two hundred Russian officers were killed or wounded during the siege. Besides the city and the great works there, General Nogi's spoils of victory were four Russian battleships, two cruisers, fourteen gunboats and torpedo-boat destroyers, ten steamers, thirty-five small steamers which could be repaired, five hundred and sixty-four cannon, almost eighty-three thousand shells, thirty thousand kilos of powder and over two million rounds of ammunition. The loss of Port Arthur was a terrible blow to the Russians, as they had spent many millions of money upon the harbor and the fortifications as well as upon those of the neighboring port of Dalny.

Battle of the Hun River.

On January 25, 1905, General Kuropatkin attempted to break through the Japanese lines and turn their right flank in the direction of Liao-Yang. Five days' fighting followed all along the line and is known as the battle of the Hun river. It was stated that more artillery was used in this fighting than in any previous engagement of the war and therefore more than in any other battle in the world's history. The Russian general's effort failed, the Russians losing over ten thousand men and the Japanese about seven thousand. The troops on both sides

suffered intensely from the cold. Many of the engagements were fought in bitter cold winds, while the thermometer registered twenty degrees below zero.

Battle of Moukden.

Finally the great battle of Moukden—the greatest of all the battles of the Russo-Japanese War, and the greatest up to that time in history—lasted twenty days, thus doubly eclipsing the battles of Liao-Yang, the Sahke river and the Hun river. The Japanese forces numbered five hundred thousand and the Russians four hundred thousand. The Japanese line extended from Sing-King-Ting on the east to Sin-Min-Tin on the west, a distance of more than a hundred miles, and this by telegraph and telephone was under the control of one central head. The real advance of the Japanese army commenced on February 19, 1905, when General Kuroki crossed the Taitse river on the ice and assailed the Russian left, or eastern wing. For two weeks before the Japanese pressed hard against the center of the Russian position at Pulitoff, or Lone Tree Hill, during which they bombarded the Russian lines very heavily, large siege guns from Port Arthur being used for the purpose. On February 25th the Russians evacuated their strongly-intrenched position at Tsin-Ketchen after two days' severe fighting, after which the Japanese captured Ta Pass and other important positions on the east. In consequence of these Japanese successes, General Kuropatkin greatly increased his forces about Fushan and moved his own headquarters from Moukden to that point. Fushan was very important to the Russians on account of its coal mines, as it was the sole source of Russian supply for railroad and other uses and because it defended Moukden on the east. While General Oku continued his assaults on the Russian center in the vicinity of Pulitoff Hill, General Nogi, with an army composed of forces from Port Arthur, made a forced march from Sandepu to Sin-Min-Tin and gained an advanced position a few miles west of Moukden. For six days and nights these Port Arthur Japanese veterans marched and fought to reach their positions, exhibiting the most fanatical bravery in their charges on the Russian intrenchments, with the warcry: "Out of the way! We are from Port Arthur!" These Japanese successes on the west made General Kuropatkin's position critical, and he found himself obliged to send a large force to the west and north to defend Moukden from those directions and to protect the railroad and highway to Tie Pass and Harbin. At the same time General Oku pressed upon the Russian center and finally made a break in the southern line of the Russian defense, crossing the Hun river on the ice between Moukden and Fushan, in the face of a blinding dust storm which concealed his movements, thus cutting off the Russian force under General Linevitch at Fushan

from the other Russian forces. Thus General Kuropatkin's army was broken in the center, attacked on both flanks and almost surrounded on the north, and its capture seemed imminent; but the Russian commander-in-chief saved his army from capture or annihilation by another masterly retreat, evacuating Moukden on March 9th, the Japanese occupying that city the next day, thus making another step in their northward advance. The Russian losses were twenty-six thousand five hundred killed, ninety thousand wounded, forty thousand made prisoners, two ensigns, sixty cannon, sixty thousand rifles, one hundred and thirty thousand ammunition wagons, one thousand army wagons, two hundred thousand shells, twenty-five million rifle cartridges, seventy-four thousand bushels of grain, material for forty-six miles of light railway, three hundred light railroad wagons, two thousand horses, twenty-three Chinese carts full of maps, over one thousand carts full of clothing, one million loaves of bread, one hundred and fifty million pounds of fuel, two hundred and twenty-three thousand bushels allowance, one hundred and twenty-five thousand pounds of hay.

Russian Retreat and Further Defeat.

After the battle of Moukden the Russians retreated to Tie Pass and the city of Tieling, forty miles north of Moukden, in a strongly-intrenched position, closely pursued by the Japanese, who occasionally assailed the Russian flanks in a continual rear-guard action, adding constantly to their spoils. The Russians lost a large amount of stores, and many detached bands of fugitives surrendered to escape starvation. The Russians made a stand at Tie Pass, but by direct attack and flank movement the Japanese drove them from that position and forced them to retreat northward toward Harbin, three hundred miles away. The losses at Tie Pass and Tieling added to those of the battle of Moukden made the total Russian losses in killed, wounded and prisoners about two hundred thousand men and the Japanese losses about forty thousand. Notwithstanding the great Russian defeat in the battle of Moukden, a Council of War at St. Petersburg resolved to continue the war and to send another large army into Manchuria. There was a strong peace party in Russia, and this party violently opposed the mobilization of another army. General Kuropatkin assumed full responsibility for his great defeat at Moukden and asked to be relieved of his command. His request was granted without comment, and General Linevitch was appointed his successor.

Continued Operations in Manchuria.

Under General Linevitch the Russian army in Manchuria retreated northward toward Harbin, pursued by the Japanese, who hung upon the Russian flanks. The Russians retreated along the railroad, which they destroyed in their retreat. The Japanese army kept at a distance of ten or twenty miles on the east and west sides of the railroad. An-

other Japanese army under General Kawamura moved still farther east toward Kirin. General Kuropatkin generously offered to remain with the army and was assigned to the command of the first Russian army, formerly commanded by General Linevitch, so that the two leading Russian generals merely changed positions.

The Russian Baltic Fleet in the Far East.

The Russian Baltic fleet under Admiral Rojestvensky finally reached Far Eastern waters, and by May, 1905, it was in the China Sea. This fleet consisted of seven battleships, nine cruisers, eight torpedo-boat destroyers, three volunteer fleet vessels, sixteen colliers, one salvage ship, one hospital ship and three former Hamburg-American liners. The fleet passed through the Straits of Malacca on April 8th and was seen off Singapore, sailing in a north-easterly direction. The Russian consul approached the fleet in a launch and informed the officers of the fall of Moukden. The soft coal burned by the fleet produced dense clouds of smoke that could be seen for miles. On April 13th a hospital ship from the fleet entered Saigon, the capital and chief port of French Indo-China, remaining there thirty-six hours and leaving a number of sick and taking on coal and supplies. From Saigon the fleet sailed to Kamranh Bay, a port of French Indo-China north of Saigon, where the fleet coaled and refitted. Japan complained of violation of neutrality by the French in permitting this hospitality. Japan declared Formosa harbors to be in the war zone and subject to usual conditions in such cases. On May 5th the Russian squadron under Admiral Nebogatoff passed Singapore into the China Sea to join the main Russian fleet under Admiral Rojestvensky. French violation of neutrality in allowing the use of the French Indo-Chinese port at Kamranh Bay to the use of the Russian fleet for the purpose of reprovisioning had attracted general attention.

French Neutrality Violated.

Great Japanese Naval Victory.

Finally the long-expected battle between the Russian and Japanese fleets occurred on May 27 and 28, 1905, at the entrance of the Straits of Korea into the Sea of Japan, this great sea-fight being known as the battle of the Sea of Japan. The whereabouts of the Japanese fleet under Admiral Togo was not known generally until the collision between the two fleets. The Russian fleet consisted of seven battleships, two armored cruisers, six protected cruisers, five unprotected cruisers and eleven torpedo-boat destroyers. The Japanese fleet was composed of four battleships, eight armored cruisers, fifteen protected cruisers, seven unprotected cruisers, four coast-defense vessels and nineteen torpedo-boat destroyers. The Russian fleet excelled in battleships and big guns, while the Japanese fleet excelled in cruisers and 8-inch and 6-inch guns and in torpedo-boats. The battle began at ten o'clock in the morning of May 27, 1905, and lasted until night. The three

JAPANESE IMPERIAL TROOPS

divisions of the Japanese fleet practically surrounded the Russian ships, the Japanese torpedo craft aiding vastly in demoralizing the Russian fleet and preventing its escape from the Japanese cordon. Opening shots were fired at a distance of seven and a half miles. Within two hours the Russian fleet was disorganized completely, and the Japanese were able to close in and concentrate their fire on the individual Russian ships in turn. The Russian battleships *Sissoi Veliky*, *Borodino*, *Alexander III.*, *Oslayba* and *Navarin* were sunk in succession. The *Borodino* was Admiral Rojestvensky's flagship after the *Kniaz Suwaroff* had been disabled. He remained on the *Borodino* until he was wounded severely, when he was taken on board a torpedo-boat destroyer which afterwards was overtaken near the coast of Korea, where the admiral was captured. During the night of May 27th the Japanese used their torpedo-boats with deadly effect, sinking many of the Russian ships, while others escaped in the darkness of the night. On Sunday, May 28th, the fighting resulted in a pursuit of the Russian ships by the Japanese vessels. Admiral Nebogatoff, with five Russian vessels, escaped toward Vladivostok, but was surrounded near Liancourt Island; and the Russian battleships *Nokolai I.* and *Orel*, with two smaller Russian ships, were surrendered by him. The Russian battleship *Izumrud* escaped and almost reached Vladivostok, when it struck a reef and was lost. The Russian cruiser *Almaz* and three Russian torpedo-boat destroyers reached Vladivostok. On June 3d Admiral Enquest, with the Russian cruisers *Oleg*, *Aurora* and *Jeimtchug*, arrived at Manila Bay, where they were interned by the American authorities until the end of the war. The Russian cruiser *Smolensk* escaped to Wu-Sung, China. Several of the disabled Russian ships drifted to the coast of Japan, where they either sank or were captured. All the Russian battleships were either destroyed or captured; and, with the exception of a few scattered remnants, the Russian fleet was annihilated. Admiral Voelkersham, who commanded the Russian battleship squadron, was killed in the conning tower of his flagship early in the fight. The Russian loss was estimated at almost ten thousand killed and wounded and five thousand prisoners. The Japanese lost three torpedo-boats and about five hundred killed and wounded. This Japanese naval victory was almost without a parallel in history, and it made Japan mistress of the Eastern seas.

Japanese Conquest of Sakhalin.

On July 12, 1905, a small Japanese force invaded the island of Sakhalin, north of the Japan Islands, and conquered it from the Russians, this being the first Russian territory occupied by the Japanese during the war. The Japanese began with a naval demonstration against the island; and, as they encountered little resistance, they

landed and seized such ports as they desired. The island of Sakhalin formerly belonged to Japan, but was divided between Russia and Japan in 1856, Russia taking the northern part of the island and Japan the southern part. In 1875 Russia forced Japan to cede to her the southern part of the island also.

Other Japanese Movements.

The Japanese also sent a land force through Korea toward Vladivostok. In Manchuria the Japanese undertook several flanking movements to keep the Russians under General Linevitch busy before Harbin, while the second Japanese army pushed through Korea to threaten the railroad between Harbin and Vladivostok.

Movements Towards Peace.

In the meantime the destruction of the Russian fleet in the Sea of Japan led to movements in the direction of peace, President Roosevelt acting as mediator. On July 2, 1905, the names of the Russian and Japanese peace plenipotentiaries were announced. The two Russian plenipotentiaries were N. V. Muravieff, the Russian Ambassador to Italy, and Baron Rosen, the new Russian Ambassador to the United States. On July 12th the announcement came from St. Petersburg that Muravieff had been replaced by M. Witte, ex-Minister of Foreign Affairs and the principal Russian liberal statesman. Witte was opposed to the war, and his position on the Far Eastern question had led to his retirement from the Czar's Cabinet. The Japanese plenipotentiaries were Baron Komura, then Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Minister Takahira. The plenipotentiaries of both nations were entrusted with full power to negotiate and conclude a treaty of peace, subject to ratification by the two governments. Some delay was caused in the selection of the plenipotentiaries because of Japan's insistence that the envoys of both powers should be clothed with full power to conclude peace and to negotiate a permanent treaty. Japan declared firmly that she would not enter upon a tentative conference in which Japan was to define her terms and then let Russia decide whether the conference should proceed with its deliberations. She insisted that the plenipotentiaries should have full treaty-making powers and that negotiations should be entered upon in a spirit of perfect sincerity. President Roosevelt assumed the same attitude. Portsmouth, New Hampshire, was selected as the place for the peace conference.

Peace of Portsmouth.

After three weeks of negotiation at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, the Russian and Japanese plenipotentiaries finally agreed upon a treaty of peace between the warring nations, on September 5, 1905. Of the twelve conditions laid down by Baron Komura at the beginning, M. Witte accepted six; namely, the recognition of the Japanese control over Korea; the Russian and Japanese evacuation of Manchuria; the transfer of the Liao-tung leasehold; the restoration of Chinese civil

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THE RUSSIAN AND JAPANESE PEACE COMMISSIONERS

Introduced by President Roosevelt, August 5, 1905

From left to right: Count Serge Witte, Baron Rosen, The President, Baron Komura and Minister Takahira

administration in Manchuria; the transfer of public property at Port Arthur and Dalny without compensation; the concession of Japanese fishing rights on the coast of Siberia. M. Witte rejected absolutely three Japanese demands—the war indemnity, the transfer of interned warships and the limitation of Russia's naval power in the Pacific. There was a compromise upon the remaining three demands. One of these demands was the transfer by Russia to Japan of the railroad from Port Arthur to Harbin, Russia conceding four hundred miles of the road north of Port Arthur, retaining for herself one hundred and twenty-five miles at the northern end. Of course, M. Witte accepted the condition that Russia should retain the main Manchurian railway. Concerning the Japanese demand for the cession of the island of Sakhalin by Russia to Japan, a partition of the island between the two nations was agreed upon, the northern half of the island remaining with Russia and the southern half going to Japan. Russia also agreed to defray Japan's expenses in maintaining her prisoners of war. Japan finally withdrew her demand for a war indemnity. The Czar and the Mikado signed the treaty at their respective capitals on October 14, 1905.

The Result.

The result of the war, in consequence of Japan's uninterrupted victories on land and sea, was to raise Japan's prestige as one of the great powers of the world, while Russia's reverses were a severe blow to her prestige. The peace terms aroused dissatisfaction in both countries, many Russians thinking that their nation had been humiliated unnecessarily, while many Japanese considered that their country did not obtain the terms which the uninterrupted Japanese successes entitled her to. The dissatisfaction in Japan led to serious riots in Tokio, where the Marquis Ito was stoned by a mob.

Japan Gains by Treaties.

It had been agreed that Japan and Russia should evacuate Manchuria, but by a subsequent treaty with China, signed December 22, 1905, Japan leased the entire Liaotung peninsula, gained control of the railways as far as Changchun, and also obtained permission to construct a railway from Antung to Moukden and to open 16 ports and cities of Manchuria to foreign trade. On September 27, 1905, a treaty with Great Britain was signed by which Japan obtained, among other things, a protective alliance and an agreement to preserve the integrity of China. Thus Japan's position became still more secure in Far Eastern affairs.

Protectorate Over Korea Established.

Korea, however, soon began to cause alarm; the Emperor was obstinate and revolutionary ideas became rampant among the people. The treaty of Portsmouth recognized Japan's control over Korea, but the natives did not and Marquis Ito was twice sent there to adjust

matters, his efforts finally resulting in the Japan-Korea treaty of November 17, 1905, which declared a Japanese protectorate over the peninsula. Subsequently Ito was appointed resident-general in Korea and from that time practically administered the Government. On July 17, 1907, the Japanese Government forced the Korean emperor to abdicate in favor of the crown prince, ostensibly because the emperor had sent a delegation to The Hague Peace Conference contrary to an existing agreement with Japan. Whatever the causes for the abdication may have been, Japan gained full control. Serious riots followed the abdication, but they were speedily and severely crushed by the Japanese military. In August, 1910, Korea, the "Land of the Midnight Sun," was formally annexed to Japan.

Korean Emperor Abdicates.

Korea.

The annexation of Korea was bitterly opposed by some of its people and from time to time appeals have been made to the outside world to compel Japan to recognize the right of Koreans to "self-determination." From the material point of view Japanese sovereignty has worked well for the country, which was one of the most backward in the world. Railways were built, schools established, a judiciary system was created, lawful taxes supplanted the old methods of extortion and "squeeze"; telephones, telegraphs, electric lighting systems and waterworks were introduced; scientific agriculture was fostered, and a beginning was made toward reforesting the denuded hills and mountain sides.

SECTION VII.—RECENT JAPANESE HISTORY.

Financial and Industrial Depression.

At home Japan was undergoing much hardship. Late in 1905 the rice crop in the North failed, causing a disastrous famine, but generous contributions greatly alleviated the condition of the sufferers. The industrial depression following the war gradually disappeared and large enterprises and vast commercial schemes of expansion of all kinds were launched until the drain on the productive resources caused a collapse. This only served, however, to place business on a more sane and sound basis.

Political Turmoil.

In political affairs there was much turmoil; governmental policies were attacked by the opposition party, who attributed much of the financial burdens of the people to mismanagement by the party in power. The financial budget presented to the Diet on January 16, 1908, showed a deficit of forty million yen (about twenty million dollars) for 1908 and 1909, to overcome which it was proposed to increase taxation, and to reduce army and navy and also railroad appropria-

Cabinet Changes.

tions. This plan met with strenuous objections from the interests affected, and finally compelled the resignations of the Minister of Finance, Sakatani, and the Minister of Communications, Yamagata. Premier Saionji also resigned, but the emperor refused to allow his resignation. In February came the dispute with China concerning the seizure of the *Tatsu Maru* by Chinese officials, who claimed that the vessel was smuggling arms to revolutionists in China. The terms upon which this dispute was settled created much dissatisfaction in Japan over the manner in which the government had handled the situation. In May followed a Chinese boycott against Japanese merchandise and a dispute concerning railways in Manchuria, both of which badly affected Japan's commercial and financial enterprises. Therefore at the elections on May 15 the government was only sustained by a very narrow margin and though the Liberal Party continued in power, the Saionji cabinet remained in office but two months longer. On July 14, 1908, the emperor appointed Marquis Katsura premier and minister of finance, and a new cabinet was formed favoring retrenchment.

Pressure of Population in Japan.

The Japanese are a very prolific race and they have the misfortune to occupy an archipelago of islands, the total area of which is comparatively small. The whole Japanese Empire, including Korea, amounts to only about 260,738 square miles, supporting a population of seventy-seven millions. Furthermore, a large part of the Empire is mountainous, and only a comparatively small part of the total area is suitable for cultivation. Much food is obtained from the sea, but notwithstanding, there is much pressure of population in Japan. This pressure of population was partly responsible for the emigration of Japanese to Canada, the United States and Australasia. The influx of Japanese into these countries created great antagonism and much international friction. Ultimately they were excluded altogether from Australasia and the United States. The need of finding an outlet for her growing population was one of the causes of the attempt to turn the tide of emigration and enterprise toward the Asian Continent. Japan sought to develop her commercial and industrial possibilities by obtaining raw materials from and exporting manufactured goods to that continent. Japanese exploitation of South Manchuria was considered necessary for these purposes.

Japan's Progress.

The victory of Japan over Russia gave her immense prestige over the world, for, strange as it may seem, strength in war seems still to be the main factor in the world's judgment upon the rank of a country. The progress which Japan had made in the arts of peace had, however, been equally remarkable, when we recall that her progress in modern civilization dates only from the visit of Commodore Perry.

In education, agriculture, finance, government administration and other features of civilization, the Japanese had made remarkable progress. An industrial revolution had transformed the industries of the country.

Death of the Emperor.

On July 30, 1912, the Japanese people were greatly grieved by the death of Emperor Matsu-Hito. A considerable number of people were so affected by his death that, in accordance with an old custom, they committed *hari-kari*, that is to say, they killed themselves. The most prominent of those who thus elected to follow their distinguished ruler to the hereafter were General Nogi, the conqueror of Port Arthur, and his wife. The dead ruler's reign covered the period of transition from the old era to the new in Japanese history, and it has been called the "era of enlightenment." When he came to power, he ruled as an absolute despot, but he and those around him saw the signs of the times and granted the people a constitution and representative institutions. At his accession Japan was ranked as a petty Oriental state. He left it one of the six great powers of the world. He was succeeded by his son Yoshihito, who was then thirty-three years old.

Japan in the Great War.

In August, 1914, under the terms of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, which had been renewed in 1911, Japan came to the assistance of Great Britain in the war with the Central Powers. When the German government refused to comply with the Japanese demand to withdraw from Far-Eastern waters all of her men-of-war and give up the German possessions on the Shantung Peninsula, Japan declared war upon Germany and Austria. Japan sent a force of 30,000 men to the Shantung Peninsula, and these, with the help of a small British force, captured the fortified zone of Kiao-Chau early in November. Japanese troops took no further part in the war, though from time to time suggestions were made in Allied countries that a Japanese army should be sent to the aid of Russia. The Japanese navy patroled the Pacific and Indian Oceans and ultimately helped to convoy Australasian troops to the various fronts. Towards the end of the conflict Japanese vessels also aided in keeping the Mediterranean routes of communication open for Allied vessels. Japan supplied the Russians with 750,000 rifles and vast quantities of munitions. These supplies made it possible for General Brussilov to undertake the great Russian offensive of June, 1916.

Japanese Troops in Siberia.

After the Bolshevists gained control in Russia the Allies sent an army to Eastern Siberia to aid the Czecho-Slovak troops who were trying to escape from Russia by way of Siberia. This army was made up chiefly of Japanese and American troops, and it had for another purpose preventing the Bolshevists from getting control of the vast war munitions that had been collected at Vladivostok. The American

GOVERNMENT PALACE, TOKIO, JAPAN

TEA HOUSE, YOKOHAMA, JAPAN

troops were withdrawn from Siberia in March, 1920, but the Japanese troops remained there until the autumn of 1922 to protect Japanese interests and the Japanese population in eastern Siberia.

Japan and China.

In 1915 Japan made the so-called "Twenty-One Demands" upon China, for the primary object of safeguarding Japanese possessions in South Manchuria. Some of the demands, however, concerned matters outside of Manchuria, and by many it was considered that Japan was seeking to reduce China to a state of vassalage. Ultimately Japan withdrew some of the demands but secured an extension of her lease of Port Arthur to 1997 and of South Manchurian railroads to 2002. In addition, China conceded certain mining privileges to Japanese subjects and made other concessions. Two years later Japan's position with regard to China was further strengthened by the Lansing-Ishii "Gentlemen's Agreement," referred to some pages back. By the Treaty of Versailles Shantung was to remain in Japanese possession, but, as already stated, at the Washington Conference Japan agreed to withdraw from Shantung. In accordance with another agreement reached at that Conference, Japan also reduced the strength of her navy.

Extension of the Suffrage.

Since the World War Japan has made notable progress in certain lines. Before 1920 suffrage in Japan was so limited by property qualifications that only twenty-eight persons out of each thousand had the right to vote, but in 1920 a new election law lowered the property qualifications so much that now about one person in every ten is a qualified voter. There has been marked improvement in education, and under the present compulsory system all children between six and fourteen years of age are required to attend school at least six years. In 1871 Japan had only one daily newspaper. Today she has about one thousand and over two thousand periodicals. Japanese foreign trade increased from 523,000,000 yen in 1900 to 4,419,000,000 in 1920. Her merchant marine has developed rapidly, and she has become one of the great carrying powers of the world.

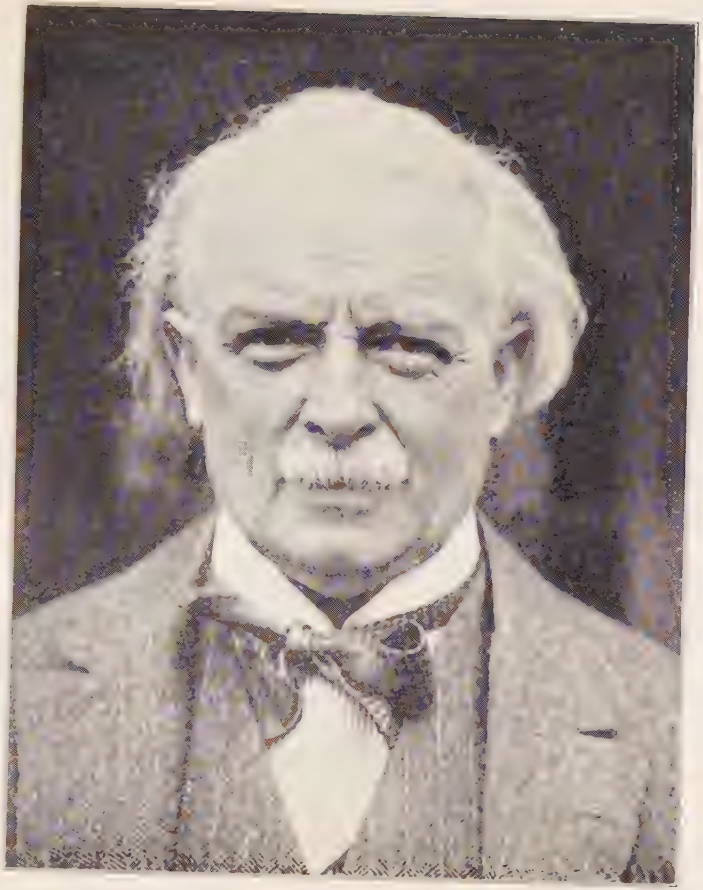
Unparalleled Progress.

Like other nations Japan has her contradictions. She has made great progress, but, as in other nations, there are unlovely aspects. When all is said, however, there can be no doubt that no other country with a large population ever made such remarkable progress in so short a time. There are militarists and imperialists in Japan, but there can be no doubt that there are also many enlightened Japanese who desire only peace and an opportunity for their people to work out their own salvation. Japanese rulers have had two main objects in view: to make Japan the dominant power in the Orient and to cause Japan to be regarded as the equal of other people. The first object was realized as a

result of the Russo-Japanese war; the second has been realized only in part, and some countries, including the United States, by insisting upon looking at the Japanese as an inferior people have endangered their relations with the "Land of the Rising Sun."

Terrible Earthquake.

The attitude of the United States towards Japanese immigration has repeatedly created serious friction between the two countries. On December 1, 1923, however, an event occurred which ultimately helped to improve the relations between the two peoples. On that date one of the most awful earthquakes in history devastated a large area in central Japan, causing the loss of over 100,000 lives and destroying property valued at billions of dollars. This terrible disaster was endured with fortitude and the Japanese people set about with commendable courage and energy to restore the ruined regions. The news of the disaster aroused a great wave of sympathy in the United States. Vast sums were raised by private subscription, and our government also rendered important aid. This aid was greatly appreciated by the grateful Japanese, and it undoubtedly did much to create a friendly feeling in Japan for Americans. "If Americans are our enemies," said the Japanese, "why do they send tens of millions of dollars to help us? If they wish to make war on us, why did they not attack when some of our ships were destroyed and our navy yards ruined?"



DAVID LLOYD GEORGE

RT. HON. H. H. ASQUITH

Chapter XLVII

The Eve of Armageddon

SECTION I.—BRITISH AFFAIRS (A. D. 1908-1914).

Asquith and Lloyd George.

In 1908 Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman was succeeded as British Premier by Herbert Asquith, who continued head of the government until 1916. The most striking personages who held office under him were Winston Churchill, who had entered politics as a Conservative, and David Lloyd George, who became Chancellor of the Exchequer. Lloyd George, the most remarkable figure that has come to the front in British affairs in the twentieth century, had overcome many obstacles in his rise to power. He was the son of a Welsh schoolmaster, who died in comparatively early life, leaving a wife and three children to be cared for by his wife's brother, who was a shoemaker and lay preacher. The uncle, a man of remarkable personality, managed by hard work and careful economy to bring up the family and also to lay aside a small sum to provide for his old age. One of the children, David, showed unusual promise, and a day came when the uncle had a momentous decision to make. Should he take the money he had laid aside to give David a higher education? Generosity won the day, and David Lloyd George was able to complete a law course and be admitted to the bar. He was so poor that he had not the money with which to buy the necessary gown. He had not long been in practice when he became the attorney in a case that attracted the attention of all Wales and England. Soon he became a member of Parliament. Gifted with unusual eloquence, he speedily rose in the councils of the Liberal Party, and when that party returned to power, he was given a place in the government. In course of time he became Prime Minister, and the most energetic figure in the struggle against Teutonic militarism. The decision made by his uncle had proved fortunate not merely for Lloyd George but for the British Empire and civilization. It is pleasing to record that the uncle survived to witness his nephew's triumph, nor did he lack comforts in his old age.

Reform Measures.

The Liberal government in the nine years from its accession to power until the outbreak of the Great War engaged in a remarkable program of reform. Laws were passed to shield the poor from disease, overwork, poverty and accident. Education was promoted, and steps were taken to impose heavier tax burdens upon swollen and unearned fortunes. Minimum wage laws and national insurance acts were passed, and an old age pension system was established. A program of land deform, one feature of which was to compel the great land owners to pay their share of the taxes, was formulated by Lloyd George. These reforms were bitterly resisted by the Conservatives, and Lloyd George became the worst hated man in Great Britain. His budget bill of 1909 passed the Commons but was thrown out by the House of Lords. This "breach of the Constitution," as it was called by Asquith, precipitated a conflict to curb the power of the Lords. Twice the Liberal government appealed to the country and twice it was sustained by the electorate. Finally in August, 1911, the Parliament Act became a law. Under this act financial bills passed by the Commons become a law automatically one month after being submitted to the House of Lords, even though that body has not passed the measure. Other bills, in spite of rejection by the Lords, become laws if passed by the House of Commons in three successive sessions, provided however, that the measure must not be amended and that at least two years must elapse between the first passing of the bill and its final enactment. To the Conservatives this law was very distasteful, but many Liberals insisted that the House of Lords must be still further reformed and placed on a popular instead of an hereditary basis. Some radicals would even abolish the House of Lords altogether.

House of Lords Deprived of Some of Its Power.

Suffragettes.

The length that the Parliament might last was reduced from seven to five years. A bill to abolish plural voting twice passed the House of Commons but was rejected by the House of Lords. Suffragettes demanded "votes for women" and angered by their failure to obtain what they wanted broke windows, threw acid into mail boxes, attacked members of the government, and even placed bombs in churches. When arrested, some of them went on hunger strikes.

Home Rule Question.

The Liberal government once more took up the Irish question. In April, 1912, Prime Minister Asquith introduced a bill whereby Ireland, while retaining representation in the British House of Commons, would be given limited home rule and a bi-cameral form of legislature. This bill was bitterly opposed by the Conservatives and the Scotch-Irish and English-Irish inhabitants of Ulster. The Ulsterites, led by Sir Edward Carson, held great mass meetings in which they solemnly swore never to submit to an Irish Parliament, and they actually raised

IMPERIAL PALACE, BERLIN, GERMANY

and equipped volunteer armies. Notwithstanding, the Home Rule Bill twice passed the House of Commons, and it was evident that the measure soon would be placed upon the statute book. A bloody riot took place in Dublin on July 26, 1914, and civil war seemed to be impending. Many British army officers, including General French, threatened to resign if they were called upon to enforce the government's Irish policy. Suddenly the Great War burst upon an astonished world. Following the German violation of Belgium, Great Britain entered the war on August 4. A truce was quickly arranged as regards Ireland, and all parties, including the Ulsterites and the Irish Nationalists, rallied to the support of the government. On September 18, 1914, the Home Rule Bill, though still not sanctioned by the Lords, became a law, but at the same time a bill was passed temporarily suspending it from being carried into effect.

SECTION II.—GERMAN AFFAIRS (A. D. 1908-1914).

German Navy Enlarged.

In 1908 after a bitter struggle the appropriation for the German navy was fixed at $84,000,000 for that year and at $105,000,000 for each year following until 1917. In these years Germany was seeking to build up a navy as strong as that of Great Britain, and more is said concerning this matter in another place.

von Bethmann-Hollweg.

In June, 1909, the Von Bülow cabinet was beaten in a vote on an important finance bill. Von Bülow thereupon resigned and was succeeded by Dr. Theobald von Bethmann-Hollweg. The new Chancellor had had some experience in provincial government, but he had no exceptional training for this important position. His appointment was mainly due to the fact that he had been since college days a warm personal friend of the Kaiser.

In the local elections of 1909 the Social-Democrats greatly increased their vote. There were other signs of the spread of democratic and socialistic ideas in the Empire. These tendencies provoked from the Kaiser in August, 1910, an outspoken statement of his belief in the divine right of kings. "Looking upon myself," he said, "as the instrument of the Lord, and regardless of the views and opinions of the hour, I shall go my way, which will be devoted solely to the well-being and peaceful development of the Fatherland." But the Kaiser's disapproval did not serve to stop the rising tide. In the general election of January, 1912, the Social-Democrats greatly increased their strength and secured 110 members, more than double their number in the previous Reichstag. They were now decidedly the most powerful

Divine Right.

Social-Democrats.

party in Germany, and their representation in the Reichstag would have been much greater still had it not been that there had been no redistribution of seats for more than forty years. In that period the industrial regions, where the Social-Democrats were strongest, had grown very rapidly and were much under represented, whereas the country districts, where the conservative parties were strongest, were over represented.

Army Increased.

Meanwhile the German militarists were increasing the navy, and in 1912 succeeded in passing through the Parliament an act providing for increasing the army by 4,000 officers, 15,000 non-commissioned officers and 117,000 men. This step caused the French, by way of answer, to pass their three-year law. Notwithstanding this increase in the German army, there existed much antagonism among the people towards militarism, and what was known as the "Zabern incident" caused a great up-flaring of this feeling. At Zabern, a town in Alsace, a Lieutenant named Von Foerstner wantonly sabered a crippled civilian, while several other civilians were ordered arrested by Colonel von Reuter, who commanded the garrison. The matter provoked bitter discussions in the Reichstag and aroused much public feeling. Lieutenant von Foerstner escaped punishment, and the Kaiser granted Colonel von Reuter a decoration. Had Germany remained at peace, it is not improbable that in the course of time the German people themselves would have found a way to put a stop to such outrages. Some have thought that the German militarists welcomed the Great War as a means of checking anti-militarist agitation. When that war came, practically all of the German people, deluded by their rulers into the belief that they were fighting a defensive conflict, rallied to the support of the Fatherland, and fought with courage and energy rarely equaled in all history.

Zabern Incident.

SECTION III.—FRENCH AFFAIRS (A. D. 1908-1914).

A Socialist Premier in France.

In July, 1909, for the first time in French history a Socialist, M. Briand, became Prime Minister. In the following year Paris suffered a loss of about fifteen million dollars from an unusual flood. The National elections of the same year resulted in favor of the existing Cabinet. In the autumn a great strike that involved workers in many industries and also railway men prostrated industry and produced an unprecedented situation. Though a Socialist and friendly to organized labor, Premier Briand acted with great decision. He summoned the army reservists, many of whom were themselves strikers, and set them to keep the peace. This step soon restored normal conditions.

RHEIMS CATHEDRAL, FRANCE

STATUE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT, BERLIN

Short-Lived Ministries.

In March, 1911, his majority in the Chamber of Deputies fell so low that M. Briand resigned. Short lived ministries headed by M. Monis and M. Joseph Caillaux followed, and in January, 1912, M. Raymond Poincairé became Premier. His management of affairs proved so popular that on January 17, 1913, he was chosen President, a position he was to hold throughout the Great War. Repeated changes of ministries followed during the next fifteen months. In the general elections of April and May, 1914, the Radical parties increased their membership, and a new Cabinet was formed, headed by M. Viviani, an orator of exceptional talents. The fact that Germany had increased the strength of her army caused the passage by the French Parliament, after a bitter struggle, of a law restoring the term of service from two to three years, the term having been reduced to the former figure nine years before.

Three Year Law.

Caillaux Scandal.

The tone of French public life in this period was very low. In 1914 a scandal occurred that convulsed France and attracted much attention abroad. In January of that year M. Calmette, the editor of *Figaro*, published many things reflecting upon ex-Premier Caillaux, who was now Minister of Finance in the Viviani Cabinet. Caillaux had married a divorcée, and Calmette published a letter that Caillaux had written her while she was still the wife of the other man. The letter not only reflected upon the writer's morals but also contained statements indicating political duplicity on his part. More letters were to have been published, but Madame Caillaux went to the editor's office and shot him dead. Her trial for murder attracted world-wide attention and disclosed unsavory details regarding French political life. Under the French Republic no woman had ever been convicted of murder, and Madame Caillaux proved no exception to the rule. The whole affair gave the outside world a wrong impression of French corruption and general rottenness. While the echoes of the trial were still reverberating the Great War suddenly burst upon the world, and in that conflict Frenchmen proved conclusively that they were not a decadent nation.

SECTION IV.—RUSSIA, THE SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES, BELGIUM AND ITALY (A. D. 1908-1914).

Russian Affairs.

It can hardly be said that the Parliamentary government granted to Russia by the Czar in 1905, did much to improve Russian conditions. The great mass of the people were ignorant and lacked political experience, while the aristocracy did what they could to make the ex-

periment in popular government a failure. In 1910 a period of reaction set in. Finland was deprived of its autonomy in that year, the persecution of the Jews was renewed, and repressive steps were taken to hold down the working classes. The Third Duma came to an end in 1911, having accomplished little towards improving social and economic conditions. In September of that year Premier Stolypin, who had come to power in 1906, was assassinated at Kiev while attending a performance at the opera. In 1912 an amicable agreement was reached between Russia and Japan, regarding their respective spheres of influence in Manchuria. In November, 1912, the Fourth Duma assembled and enacted a few progressive measures. Attempts to Russify Finland provoked in June and July of 1914 general strikes and uprisings in that province. In the midst of these disorders came the Great War.

Portugal a Republic.

Manuel II. of Portugal, who succeeded to the throne in 1908 after the assassination of his father, at first made a good impression, but he soon developed such extravagant and immoral traits that he alienated his people. In October, 1910, a revolution took place and King Manuel fled to England. A republic was proclaimed, and Theophile Brago, a poet and author, became Provisional President. In August of the following year a formal constitution went into effect, and at an election in October Manuel de Arriago was elected as the first constitutional President. In the next few years there were repeated attempts at revolution, but the republic managed to endure. Early in 1916 Portugal, which for more than a century had been in alliance with Great Britain, declared war upon Germany and seized the German ships in Portugese harbors. Portugese troops ultimately participated in the war on the Western Front.

Death of Danish King.

In 1912 Frederick VIII. of Denmark, who was in bad health, made a trip to the Riviera, and on his way home stopped in Hamburg. He went out for a walk in the night time and died suddenly in the street, and it was a long time before his dead body was recognized. His son succeeded him under the title of Christian X. In this period Denmark enjoyed much prosperity, partly due to an excellent system of vocational training and to a remarkable development of co-operative enterprise.

Trials of Neutrals.

Denmark and the other Scandinavian countries and also Holland remained neutral during the Great War. Their people were able to make large profits during that conflict by selling goods at high prices to Germany. Throughout the conflict Holland and Denmark were under apprehensions of invasion either by Germany or by the Entente Allies, but they were fortunate enough to escape the fate that befell Belgium.

KING ALBERT OF BELGIUM

KING VICTOR EMMANUEL OF ITALY

Death of Leopold II.

King Leopold II. of Belgium died December 17, 1909. Before his death he had given to Belgium the Congo Free State, which had been built up under his personal sovereignty. The deceased monarch was survived only by daughters, and under the Salic law of succession these were passed over and the throne went to the son of Leopold's younger brother, Count Phillipe of Flanders. The new monarch, who was thirty-four years old and very democratic and studious in disposition, took the title of Albert I. Under the electoral system then existing, 400,000 persons who had two votes each and 300,000 who had three votes each, easily out-voted the million other electors who had only one vote each. The Conservatives and Clericals were long able to defeat any attempts to remedy this situation, and finally in April, 1913, 500,000 workers began a great "suffrage strike." In ten days they had so tied up industry that the government gave way and suffrage reforms were granted.

Albert I.

Belgium's Fate.

In 1914 little Belgium, only about a third the size of Indiana, but three times as populous, was one of the most prosperous countries in the world. Its neutrality had been solemnly guaranteed by the Great Powers, but almost in the twinkling of an eye its peace and happiness vanished and it was pushed into the maelstrom of the Great War.

Terrible Earthquake.

During its history Italy has frequently suffered from volcanic eruptions and earthquakes. The worst earthquake in its history and probably the most destructive natural phenomenon in world history took place on December 28, 1908. Both Sicily and Calabria were affected. The city of Messina and many other towns were reduced to ruins. Altogether about 200,000 people perished and about a billion dollars worth of property was destroyed. The civilized world sent speedy help and in a few days seven million dollars had been sent to Italy to aid the sufferers.

Italy's War with Turkey.

In 1911 Italy declared war upon Turkey. An account of this war is given in another place. At its close Italy held Tripoli, Cyrenaica and a dozen of the Turkish Ægean Islands. The name of Libya was given to the territory acquired in Africa. An attempt was made to divert thither the immigrants who were pouring to the United States and other countries. Great difficulty was experienced in pacifying the provinces and the whole experiment proved a costly one.

Extension of the Suffrage.

In 1913 practically manhood suffrage was granted in Italy, and the number of voters was more than doubled.

Death of Pius X.

Pope Pius X. was greatly affected by the outbreak of the Great War, and it weighed so heavily upon his mind that he died October 20, 1914. The Conclave of Cardinals chose to succeed him Cardinal

Giocomo Della Chiesa who was Archbishop of Bologna. The new Pope took the title of Benedict XV.

Italy Restive in the Triple Alliance.

In these years the Italian people became more and more dissatisfied with their membership in the Triple Alliance. Italy's war with Turkey had been viewed with disfavor by Germany and Austria-Hungary, and Italian war operations had been hampered by Austria-Hungary's refusals to permit the Italians to attack Turkish possessions on the Adriatic. As the Teutonic leaders realized that Italy's adherence to the Triple Alliance in case of a general war would be doubtful, they made strong efforts to obtain Turkey as an ally to fill the possible vacancy.

SECTION V.—AUSTRIA-HUNGARY AND THE BALKAN STATES (A. D. 1908-1918).

Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Late in 1908 Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, which the treaty of Berlin of 1878 had placed under her administration. This act was a violation of the treaty, but Turkey was not strong enough to make resistance and Russia, by whom this annexation was regarded with disfavor, was too weakened by revolution and by her war with Japan to take steps to prevent it.

A Polyglot Power.

The greatest problem of the Dual Monarchy grew out of the conflict of nationalities. That monarchy constituted a sort of ethnic whirlpool in which Germans, Slavs, Magyars, Italians and various other races engaged in racial conflicts. In Austria the Germans were able to predominate, and in Hungary the Magyars. In Austria Poles, Czechs, Ruthenians, Slovenes and Italians were dissatisfied with their condition. In Hungary racial animosities were even more bitter than in Austria. Although the Magyars constituted only half the population, they were very illiberal in their treatment of the large numbers of Roumans and Serbo-Croats. The franchise was limited to a comparative few, and out of 413 members of the Chamber of Deputies there were only seven who were not Magyars. Demands for political and social reforms were insistent. Furthermore, many of the Serbo-Croats desired to help create a Greater Servia, and many of the Roumans in Transylvania wished to unite with their kindred in Roumania. Centrifugal tendencies were strong, therefore, in the Dual Monarchy, and it was frequently predicted that the death of Emperor Francis Joseph, who was highly respected by most of his subjects, would soon be followed by the breaking up of the Hapsburg dominions.

CARDINAL MERCIER OF BELGIUM

"Young Turks."

In Turkey an increasing number of intelligent people were becoming dissatisfied with the existing régime. Many had studied in European Universities and had become enthusiastic for progress and for popular government. This party came to be called the "Young Turks." On July 23, 1908, the Committee of Union and Progress, central body of the Young Turk movement, proclaimed the constitution of 1876 at Salonica. Most of the army adhered to the Young Turks, and Sultan Abdul Hamid was terrified into officially recognizing the constitution and proclaiming a constitutional monarchy. The next year a counter-revolution was attempted, but a force of 25,000 men captured Constantinople, deposed Abdul Hamid II., and put his younger brother, Mohammed V., upon the throne.

Bulgaria Declares Independence.

Austria-Hungary took advantage of the disturbed condition of affairs in Turkey and of the weakened condition of Russia resulting from revolution and defeat by Japan to annex (October 8, 1908) Bosnia and Herzegovina, over which the Dual Monarchy had been given a protectorate by the treaty of Berlin. The same month Ferdinand of Bulgaria declared Bulgaria independent of Turkey and assumed the title of Czar. Turkey was too weak to prevent these steps, but derived some comfort from money indemnities paid by Austria-Hungary and Bulgaria.

Young Turks Prove Harsh.

Many western observers predicted that great things would result from the Young Turk movement, but the Turkish people were ignorant and without political experience, and under such conditions successful self-government was impossible. Control of the government soon fell into the hands of a few selfish and ruthless leaders such as Enver, Djemal and Talaat. The Young Turks had at first proclaimed that the movement was for all the inhabitants of the Turkish Empire, irrespective of race or religion, but soon it became clear that those who had control were less interested in constitutional government than in nationalism. Steps were taken to "Ottomanize" all the various races in the Empire. The Turkish language was made official, education was standardized, Christians were practically debarred from office, public meetings were forbidden, and the Bulgars, Greeks and Servians in Macedonia were disarmed. These steps brought Servia, Bulgaria and Greece closer together, and in the spring of 1912 a Balkan League was created that included the three powers just mentioned and also Montenegro.

War with Italy.

Meanwhile Turkey was involved in a war with Italy. Italy had long desired to control Tripoli and Cyrenaica, and in September, 1911, announced its intention to seize these provinces. In the war that followed, there was much petty fighting between the Turkish garrisons and Arab

troops. But the Italian navy controlled the Mediterranean and prevented the sending of re-inforcements by water, while Great Britain refused to permit Turkey to march troops across Egypt, though Egypt was nominally under the suzerainty of the Sultan. Italy seized Patmos, Rhodes and other Ægean islands. Finally, by treaties signed October 18, 1912, Turkey ceded Tripoli and Cyrenaica to Italy and agreed that Italy should retain the conquered islands until the two provinces were evacuated.

First Balkan War.

Even before this treaty was signed Turkey became involved in another war. Inflamed by reports of massacres of Christians by the Turks in Macedonian villages, and hoping to obtain Turkish territory, the Balkan League, notwithstanding warnings from the Great Powers, made war upon Turkey. The League had nearly a million well-trained and equipped troops, while Turkey had only about half that number. The Bulgarians defeated a Turkish army, laid siege to Adrianople, and presently won a great victory at Lule Burgas, a battle in which over 50,000 men were killed or wounded. The Turks in that region fell back to defensive lines a few miles for Constantinople. Meanwhile the Greek navy was capturing Turkish islands, while the Greek army took Salonica. Servian and Bulgarian forces overran Macedonia. Servians and Montenegrins took Novi-Bazar and Durazzo, and Montenegrins laid siege to Scutari. Early in December, 1912, an armistice temporarily halted hostilities, but Turkey would not agree to the League's demands, and in February the conflict was renewed. But Janina, Adrianople and Scutari were taken, and the Turks again had to ask for peace negotiations.

Treaty of London.

These Balkan conflicts well-nigh precipitated a general European war. Austria-Hungary threatened that if Montenegro retained Scutari she would declare war, and Pan-Slavists in Russia were anxious to support Montenegro, but Montenegro consented to evacuate Scutari, and on May 30, 1913, representatives of all the warring powers agreed to the Treaty of London. By this treaty Turkey ceded all her territory on the Continent of Europe except a small strip in the region of Constantinople.

Second Balkan War.

Almost immediately the victors quarrelled over the spoils. Bulgaria demanded two-thirds of the conquered territory, and when Servia and Greece demurred, Bulgaria attacked them. Montenegro and Roumania speedily joined in the war against Bulgaria, while the Turks under Enver Bey recaptured Adrianople. Bulgaria was quickly beaten and had to agree to the Treaty of Bucharest, signed August 10, 1913. By this treaty Bulgaria had to give up her claims to western Macedonia and to cede the Dobruja to Roumania. Bulgaria, however, was given

QUEEN MARY OF ENGLAND

EMPRESS AUGUSTA VICTORIA OF GERMANY

a strip of Macedonia and Eastern Thrace and about seventy miles of seacost on the Ægean. By separate treaty she was forced to concede Adrianople to Turkey. Servia obtained much of Macedonia and the eastern half of the sanjak of Novi-Bazar. Greece obtained Salonica and much territory in addition. Montenegro was later permitted to annex the western half of the sanjak of Novi-Bazar.

Albania.

The ownership of the Ægean islands and the question of Albania were left for later settlement. Greece claimed and occupied all of the Ægean islands except twelve that had been seized by Italy. Turkey refused to concede the Greek claim and proceded to strengthen her navy for an attempt to recapture the islands. Albania, by agreement of the Powers, was made an independent principality, and Prince William of Wied, a German Prince, was made its ruler. His subjects were perhaps the most turbulent in the world, and soon after the Great War began, he found it expedient to flee the country.

Results.

The Balkan wars had cost a billion and a half dollars in money, and the lives of 200,000 soldiers, while many women and old men had been cruelly abused by the combatants, the worst offenders being the Greeks and Bulgarians. Turkey was practically banished to her Asiatic possessions. All the Christian Balkan states, and especially Servia and Greece, had gained in territory and population. For a little while the members of the Balkan League had co-operated against the common enemy, then the League had broken up and the bitterest hatreds had developed between the Bulgarians, on the one side, and Greeks, Servians and Roumanians on the other.

Austro-Hungarian Discontent.

The outcome of the Balkan wars was unsatisfactory not only to Turkey and Bulgaria but also to Austria-Hungary and Germany. Servia, which stood in the way of the realization of Teutonic ambitions in the Near East, came out of the war doubled in territory and population, while the desire of her people to create a Greater Servia that would include those portions of the Hapsburg dominions chiefly inhabited by peoples of Servian blood constituted a threat against the integrity of the Dual Monarchy.

SECTION VI.—IMPERIALISM AND MILITARISM.

The "Old Colonial Movement."

One of the most important facts of the last four centuries and a half has been the spread of European influence and civilization to other parts of the world. The voyages of Columbus and Vasco de Gama began a colonial movement that resulted in the Europeanizing of most of the two Americas and in the planting of European colonies in Africa, Asia and Australia. This whole colonial movement, some of

the main facts of which have been set forth in earlier volumes, seemed to have exhausted much of its energy early in the nineteenth century.

The "New Colonial Movement."

Later in that century, however, a new colonial movement, sometimes called the "New Imperialism" began. In part it received its impulse from the Industrial Revolution and the resultant desire to find new markets for manufactures and new sources of supply for raw materials. As a result of this new movement the unknown parts of Africa were explored and all of that continent with the exception of two small states, Liberia and Abyssinia, was partitioned among European powers. European possessions in Asia were extended. Ultimately practically every region in the world inhabited by civilized or half-civilized people who were unable to defend themselves was added to the colonial possessions of these powers. At one time it seemed that even China would be divided up, but a halt was put to this movement by the victory of the Japanese over Russia in 1904-05. Latin America was saved only by the Monroe Doctrine.

Germany Enters the Scramble Late.

Great Britain, which had ultimately been the most successful colonizing power in the first colonial period, gained the lion's share of the spoils in the period of the "New Imperialism." France won territory in Farther India and in Africa. Italy acquired provinces in East Africa and ultimately conquered in 1911 Tripoli and Cyrenaica. Russia extended her possessions south of the Caucasus at the expense of Turkey, and like a slow moving glacier pushed downward into China and central Asia, to the no small alarm of the British, who feared for their possessions in India. Germany entered the scramble at the eleventh hour. Bismarck believed that her future lay at home, but the need for more outlets for German superabundance of population and energy, above all the example of other Powers, ultimately led her to participate. By that time practically everything of much value had been seized by some other power, and Germany was able to obtain little except what might be termed "cull stuff." She acquired German East Africa, German Southwest Africa, Togoland, the Kameruns, part of New Guinea, most of Samoa and various minor possessions, including the Caroline, Ladrone and Marshall islands, purchased from Spain after the Spanish-American War. Germans felt that they had been badly treated, and beyond question their envy of the rich colonial possessions of some of the other powers, especially Great Britain, was one of the causes of the Great War. As one German traveller phrased it: "The British get everything, the Germans nothing."

Roots of the War.

To understand all the causes of the Great War one would have to go back very far, back at least to the final break-up of Charlemagne's

Empire in 843, when the western part, roughly corresponding to France, went to Charles; the east part went to Ludwig, the German; and the central strip and Italy and the Imperial title to Lothaire. From that day down to this the region that lay between Charles's share and Ludwig's share has been a prize to be struggled for.

Triple Alliance and the Dual Alliance.

In 1871 the Germans took from France Alsace-Lorraine and exacted a great money indemnity. France naturally looked forward to a war of revenge and to regaining the lost provinces. But Bismarck, in order to prevent such a war, set out to isolate France diplomatically. He brought about an alliance with Austria-Hungary and in 1882 by shrewd management succeeded in persuading Italy to join the combination, which was thenceforth known as the "Triple Alliance." So long as Bismarck was in control German diplomacy was triumphant, and even Russia was leagued with Germany. But after the accession of William II. Bismarck was driven from power, Russia and Germany were estranged, and in 1893 Russia and France entered into what was known as the Dual Alliance. This alliance was designed to hold in check the Triple Alliance. Its existence was known, but the exact terms were not made public until after the Bolshevists gained power in 1918.

British Fear Russia.

During most of this period England pursued a policy of "splendid isolation." With France, which for centuries had been a natural enemy, she was usually on reasonably friendly terms, though war was threatened by the Fashoda incident in 1898. During most of the nineteenth century the British regarded Russia as their most redoubtable antagonist. With Russia they fought, with the aid of France, Turkey and Sardinia, the Crimean War, and on other occasions they intervened to save Turkey from Russia, not because they loved the Turks but feared the Russians. During the ninth decade of the nineteenth century, for example, it was generally supposed that the next great war would be between Great Britain and Russia and that it would be precipitated by Russian encroachments on India. It was presumed that the decisive battles would probably be fought somewhere around Khyber Pass. English literature of that period is full of references to Russia as a possible antagonist. Kipling, for example, in his *The Man Who Was* and *The Taking of Lungtungpen*, refers to such a future war, and he even wrote a poem about Russia, entitled *The Bear Who Walks Like a Man.*

Change in British Relations with Germany.

With Germany English relations until near the end of the century were friendly. Prussia and England had been allies in the Seven Years War, and it was the coming of Prussian troops that enabled Wellington

to win the battle of Waterloo. The husband of Queen Victoria was a German. Her daughter married the Crown Prince of Prussia, who later for a few short months ruled as Frederick III. Kaiser Wilhelm II. was Victoria's grandson, a nephew of Edward VII., and first cousin to George V. So long as German aspirations were confined to the continent of Europe, Great Britain viewed her with friendly eyes. But a time came when Germany sought to build up a colonial empire, a great overseas trade and a merchant marine. Germans viewed Great Britain with envy and came to regard her as an obstacle in the way of the realization of their imperial ambitions. The first up-flaring of British hostility towards Germany came at the time of the Kaiser's ill-judged telegram of congratulations to President Krüger in 1895. Furthermore, the Germans began to build a great navy. With the British it was an axiom that the strength of their empire was no greater than the strength of their fleet, and naturally they viewed with alarm German naval activities. British uneasiness was increased by blunt declarations on the part of German publicists that Germany must build up a colonial empire of her own upon the ruins of existing colonial empires.

Race in Naval Construction.

The British policy was to maintain a navy powerful enough to defeat any two navies that might be united against it. A race in warship building ensued between Great Britain and Germany. British naval designers evolved a super-battleship, and the first one constructed, called the *Dreadnought*, gave her name to the class. In some respects, however, this new type of ship proved a disadvantage to the British. It made the old style battleships practically obsolete. The Germans almost immediately began building ships of this class and were able to start on almost equal terms with the British. But the British were determined not to permit the German strength even to approximate their own, and proceeded to build dreadnoughts and presently super-dreadnoughts very rapidly. The Germans followed suit, but, owing to the financial demands of their great army, were not able to put as much money into their navy as did the British. The financial strain on both countries was so great that Winston Churchill, First Lord of the British Admiralty, proposed that both nations should take a "vacation" in naval construction. But the Germans ignored the suggestion and continued their naval program. As time passed many people in both nations came to regard a war as inevitable. Britons like Lord Roberts endeavored to secure the creation of a strong British army, but the British public had great faith in the fleet and the agitation failed.

GEORGE V., KING OF GREAT BRITAIN

Entente Cordiale.

Meanwhile the growing antagonism between Great Britain and Germany had brought about a diplomatic revolution. Theophile Delcassé, French Minister of Foreign Affairs, saw the possibilities in the situation and sought to bring about a *rapprochement* between his country and Great Britain. He found willing listeners among members of the British government and especially in King Edward VII., who was fond of France and was liked by Frenchmen. In 1904 a number of colonial disputes between the two countries were adjusted. France agreed to respect Great Britain's position in Egypt, while Great Britain agreed to give France free rein in Morocco. Thus was formed the "*Entente Cordiale*," which was not strictly an alliance, for there were no formal promises of military or naval support; still it was understood that the two nations should work in harmony and especially should co-operate to check German aggressions.

Triple Entente.

The defeat of Russia by Japan in 1904-05 caused the British to lose much of their former fear and distrust of Russia. Partly through French suggestion Great Britain and Russia in 1907 reached a mutual understanding regarding their spheres of influence in China, Afghanistan and Persia. The *Entente Cordiale* was enlarged into the Triple Entente, consisting of Great Britain, France and Russia. Japan was already in alliance with Great Britain and was bound to come to her support in case British possessions in Asia should be attacked by more than one power. Russian and Japanese relations were improved, and existing disputes were amicably settled. Furthermore, the hope existed that in case of a general war Italy, which was restive as a member of the Triple Alliance, might refuse to follow her Teutonic associates.

German Leaders Mislead Their People.

Thus the Triple Entente stood opposed in Europe to the Triple Alliance. The purposes of the Triple Entente, at least as those purposes were understood by Englishmen, were not aggressive; but in Germany much was said about the policy of "encirclement," and the War Lords sought to convince their people that Germany was in danger of attack. They took advantage of the public sentiment thus developed to bring about increases in the army and navy. To make up for the possible loss of Italy, they endeavored to curry favor with Turkey.

Pan-German Movement.

A general war was rendered more probable by clashing racial interests. There had developed in Germany and in some other countries where there were many Germans what was called the Pan-German movement. Supporters of this movement founded the Pan-German League and sought to bring all Germans under one rule. Many, however, were not content with this aim, but advocated extensive conquests. Holland, Denmark, Belgium, Switzerland and western Russia were to be con-

quered. A great "*Mittel-Europa*" was to be founded stretching from Berlin to Bagdad and dominated by Germans. A great colonial empire was to be created. Weaker nations must give way in order that the Germans might have their proper "place in the sun." South America must be colonized, and a few Pan-Germans even spoke of conquering the United States.

Germany's "Place in the Sun."

Pan-Slavism.

Opposed to Pan-Germanism stood the Pan-Slavic movement, whose ideal was that all Slavs would be freed from the domination of other races and united, not necessarily into one state but into states that were in close harmony. This movement threatened the territorial integrity of both Germany and Austria-Hungary, but especially of the latter. In Eastern Germany there were some millions of people of Polish blood inhabiting the regions that had been Prussia's share in the division of Poland. Rigorous methods had been taken to Germanize these people but with only partial success. In both Austria and Hungary there were great numbers of Slavs: in fact, about half the people of the Dual Monarchy were of Slavic blood. The Czechs of Austria and the Slovaks of Hungary had aspirations to found a common independent state. The Poles in Galicia desired to help re-establish Poland. Millions of Slavic people in southern Hungary wished to unite with Servia. Great numbers of people in Transylvania were of Roumanian blood and desired to join Roumania.

Militarism.

But opposing alliances and racial movements might not have caused war if it had not been for militarism. In every great world power and even in many smaller ones there were still worshippers of the War God. It was in Germany, however, that his power was greatest. There were, to be sure, millions of Germans who did not desire war, some of whom were even pacifists, but the militarists were in control. Most Germans believed that war paid, and this belief was borne out by the fact that in their last three wars, at comparatively small cost in blood and treasure, they had gained great advantages. They looked forward to the time when in a new war yet greater advantages might be gained.

Treitschke and Bernhardi.

German writers like Treitschke and Bernhardi praised war as a positive good; the latter called it "a biological necessity." In olden times, declared another writer, strong people drove weaker ones from their home by wars of extermination. To-day, in order to protect themselves, the little peoples "have invented a new word—that is, international law."

War Glorified.

"War is the noblest and holiest expression of human activity," said a militarist organ in October, 1913, "For us too, the glad, great hour of battle will strike. Still and deep in the German heart must live the joy of battle and the longing for it. Let us ridicule to the utmost the

EMPEROR WILLIAM II. OF GERMANY

old women in breeches who fear war and deplore it as cruel and revolting. No; war is beautiful. Its august sublimity elevates the human heart beyond the earthly and the common. In the cloud palace above sit the heroes, Frederick the Great, and Blücher, and all the men of action—the Great Emperor, Moltke, Roon, Bismarck, are there as well, but not the old women who would take away our joy in war. When here on earth a battle is won by German arms and the faithful dead ascend to heaven, a Potsdam lance corporal will call the guard to the door, and 'Old Fritz' [Frederick the Great], springing from his golden throne, will give the command to present arms. That is the heaven of Young Germany."

William II.

Of the German royal family the Crown Prince was regarded as the firebrand. He made no secret of the fact that when he came to power he would have war, if for no other reason than "just for the fun of it." When William II. became Emperor, he was regarded as a menace to European peace; by some it was said that he was mentally unbalanced. But he ruled for a quarter of a century and during that time Germany became involved in no great war, although he was constantly talking about war and spoke bombastically of Germany's "shining sword." In that time Germany increased in power and prosperity, and some people came to believe that William had been misjudged. In reality, he was only biding his time. Centuries before the House of Hohenzollern to which he belonged had been petty counts on the border of Switzerland. But one of them had bought Brandenburg, and those who followed him had by war, by purchase, by marriage, increased the possessions of the House until it ruled over a mighty military power. They had made themselves the dominant power on the Continent of Europe; it was William's ambition to make himself the dominant figure in the world.

Moroccan Crises.

Three times in the decade before 1914 a great war had been narrowly averted. In 1905 Kaiser Wilhelm intervened in Moroccan affairs and by virtual threat of war compelled the retirement of Delcassé, France's Minister of Foreign Affairs. That France gave way was partly due to the fact that Russia, weakened by her war with Japan, was in no condition to render aid. In 1911 he again intervened in Morocco, but this time Russia was stronger, Great Britain sided with France, and France stood firm. For a few days the issue trembled in the balance, but ultimately war was averted. These two incidents should not be lost sight of in considering the causes of the Great War. Germany's action roused once more the old French hostility that had shown signs of dying down. In Germany the outcome of the second

crisis was regarded by militarists as humiliating to Germany, and the Kaiser was bitterly criticised for not making a firmer stand. Both nations increased their military establishments as has been narrated in preceding pages.

Balkan Wars.

In 1912-13 occurred the two Balkan wars. That a general European conflict did not follow was largely due to the pacific endeavors of Sir Edward Grey, British Foreign Minister. The results of these wars were displeasing to the Teutonic powers, chiefly because Servia, which was an obstacle in the way of the realization of their ambitions in the Near East, was doubled in size and territory. In 1913 Austria-Hungary wished to attack and chastise Servia, but was prevented from doing so by the attitude of Italy.

Chapter XLVIII
THE GREAT WAR

SECTION I.—THE FIRST BATTLES.

Assassination of Archduke Ferdinand.

In the preceding chapter something was said about the general causes of the Great War. The immediate occasion grew out of the assassination of the Archduke Ferdinand, heir apparent to the throne of the Hapsburgs. On the 28th of June, 1914, in company with his morganatic wife, the accomplished Duchess of Hohenberg, he visited the town of Serajevo, the capital of Bosnia. The population of Bosnia is very cosmopolitan, but a large part of the people were of Servian blood and many of these were anxious to belong to a Greater Servia. The day was the Vidou Dan, anniversary of the downfall on the fatal battle field of Kossovo of the old Servian Empire in 1389. A bomb was hurled at the Archduke's car as he was entering the town. The explosion wounded a number of bystanders, but the royal pair were untouched. Shortly afterwards, however, at the town hall another conspirator named Gavrio Princip shot and killed both the Archduke and his wife.

The Assassins.

The assassination caused great indignation in Austria-Hungary. Both Princip and Cabrinovic, the one who threw the bomb, were subjects of the House of Hapsburg, but they were of Servian blood, and it was suspected that they were instigated by a Pan-Slavic organization, the Narodna-Odbrana, which had ramifications in both Austria-Hungary and Servia. An Austro-Hungarian investigating commission reported that the plot had been formed in Belgrade, and that involved in it were certain officials of the Servian government and army. By many it was asserted that the Servian government itself was involved, but this was not true.

Austro-Hungarian Ultimatum.

Relations between Servia and Austria-Hungary had long been bad. Servia lay athwart the path of Austria-Hungary and Germany's ambitions in the Near East. Furthermore, the House of Hapsburg feared that Servia might play toward the Hapsburg subjects of Servian

blood the rôle that Sardinia had played in the nineteenth century toward Hapsburg subjects of Italian blood. In 1913 Austria-Hungary had wished to chastise Servia, but had been prevented from doing so by Italy, a fellow member of the Triple Alliance. This time Austria-Hungary did not consult Italy, but, having received assurances of support from Germany, sent on July 23, to Servia one of the most formidable ultimatums ever addressed by one nation to another. Servia's reply must be returned in forty-eight hours. It is clear that the shortness of the time allowed was especially intended to prevent outside intervention.

Dangerous Possibilities.

Now for the first time the people of Europe generally began to realize that they were on the brink of an awful precipice. Servia could not concede all the demands of the ultimatum without sacrificing her independence, and she turned to Russia, which had long been considered the special protector of the Slavic states of the Balkans. In 1908, Russia, weakened by a revolution and by her war with Japan, had been compelled to permit Austria-Hungary to annex Bosnia and Herzegovina, but she was stronger now and was not likely to stand aside and permit Servia to be crushed. If Russia stood by Servia it would involve her in war with Austria-Hungary; Germany would enter the conflict on the side of her ally, and then France, the ally of Russia, and perhaps other powers would be drawn into the war.

Futile Proposals.

To describe in detail all the events of these fateful days would require a volume in itself. Sir Edward Grey, the British Foreign Secretary, and French and Russian statesmen vainly endeavored to find some way out of the dangerous situation. Suggestions were repeatedly made to Austria-Hungary that the dispute should be submitted to The Hague Tribunal or to a conference of the Powers, but in vain. Rather than forego the privilege of chastising Servia and removing her from their path, Austria-Hungary and Germany were willing to risk not merely a war with Servia but a general European conflict.

War Declared on Servia.

Servia's answer, delivered on July 25, conceded most of the demands of the ultimatum and offered to submit the dispute to The Hague or to a conference of the Powers. But Austria-Hungary regarded the answer as unsatisfactory, immediately broke off diplomatic relations and on the 27th began an invasion of Servia. Feverish negotiations continued between the Powers but in vain. Russia began to mobilize her troops to aid Servia; Germany, the rulers of which had hitherto remained in the background, dispatched an ultimatum to Russia, on July 31, and next day declared war upon her.

German Enthusiasm.

In Germany great enthusiasm developed when war became probable. Wherever the Kaiser appeared, he rode among wildly excited mobs

EARL OF BALFOUR

SIR EDWARD GREY

shouting, "*Hoch! Hoch!*" To a great crowd gathered before the palace on the evening of July 31, he made an address in which he said: "A fateful hour has fallen upon Germany. Envious peoples on all sides are compelling us to resort to just defense. The sword is being forced into our hands." This speech was part of a carefully calculated policy designed to delude the German people into believing that they were waging a defensive and not an aggressive war.

The Position of France.

On July 31, the German ambassador at Paris demanded to know by one o'clock the next day, what attitude France would take in case of a war with Germany and Austria-Hungary. M. Viviani, the French Premier, returned the cryptic answer that "France would do what her interests dictate." The terms of the Dual Alliance bound France to come to the aid of Russia in such war but even if she had agreed to stand aside, it is known that Germany would have exacted from her the occupation of a part of France, including some of the chief fortresses. France was anxious, however, to avoid a war if possible and drew her troops back from the German border in order to prevent a collision. But to be prepared to defend herself, France began to mobilize her troops on August 2, and Germany declared war the next day.

Will Great Britain Enter?

The great question now was, What would be the attitude of England? England had an *Entente Cordiale* with France and was a member of the alliance known as the Triple Entente. But she was not definitely bound to enter the war in behalf of either France or Russia. In Germany it was confidently believed that Great Britain would remain neutral. At this time there was a bitter political conflict in Great Britain over the question of Home Rule in Ireland. Blood had been shed in Dublin, and some of the British army officers had tendered their resignations rather than carry out the government's Home Rule policy. Civil war, in fact, seemed pending. This situation encouraged the German belief that Great Britain would not enter the conflict. Had the German Kaiser really believed that the British Empire, with its powerful navy would participate in the war, hostilities, in all probability, would never have been precipitated.

British Hesitation.

It is clear now that the whole history of Europe would have been different had Great Britain stood aside. The Teutonic Allies would speedily have beaten France and Russia. England's turn would have come next, and the Germans could then probably have realized their ambition to establish a world empire on the ruins of that of Great Britain. Many Englishmen realized this dire possibility and were anxious that Great Britain should go in immediately. But the British government was the most pacific that had ever ruled Britain and held back in doubt. That Great Britain would ultimately have become in-

volved in the conflict seems almost certain, but it is probable that for a time at least, she would have remained neutral had it not been for the German invasion of Belgium.

Belgian Neutrality Guaranteed.

This little country, only about a third the size of Indiana but three times as populous, is one of the natural cock-pits of Europe. More mighty battles have been fought there than in any other region of equal size on the earth's surface. The present Kingdom of Belgium dates from the revolution of 1839. The chief European Powers, including Great Britain and Prussia, signed an agreement establishing the perpetual neutrality of Belgium. Even without this specific guarantee, Belgian neutrality was guaranteed by the general rule of international law which forbids the invasion of a neutral state. There can be no doubt that in 1914 the neutrality of Belgium was as definitely safeguarded as international law could make it. Nevertheless, such was the cynicism regarding international obligations that for many years it had been a common subject of speculation as to whether in case of war with France, Germany would send her troops through Belgium. Germany had even constructed strategic railways up to the Belgian frontier and had provided turntables and platforms far beyond what the region required. Dreading invasion, Belgium's military authorities had secretly negotiated with British military authorities for aid in case of invasion by Germany, but such interference was entirely contingent upon an invasion. The Belgian route exercised a fatal fascination for the German military staff. The German plan of campaign in case of war with France and Russia had been formulated many years before. The Teutonic strategists realized that the population of France and Russia greatly exceeded that of Germany and Austria-Hungary. In military preparedness, however, the advantage was on their side. It had been decided, therefore, that practically the whole of the mighty German army should be thrown against France in the hope of affecting her speedy conquest. It was known that Russian mobilization would necessarily be slow and it was believed that the Austro-Hungarian forces, with some slight German aid, would be able to hold the Russians in check until France had been crushed. The victorious German troops in France could then be transferred to the eastern frontier and Russia in turn could be overwhelmed.

German Plan Long Prepared.

French and Russian Preparations.

To make such a success possible the element of speed was of tremendous importance. In his book, "*Germany and the Next War*," General Bernhardi had said that if the Central Powers could not win such a war in a few months they could not win at all. French and Russian military men had foreseen that this would probably be the Teutonic plan and had done what they could to guard themselves

against it. With the aid of French loans Russia was improving her strategic railroads, while on the frontier facing Germany the French had constructed a system of very powerful fortifications. To break through this system of defense, the German leaders realized, would be very costly both in men and in time, and time, as we have just seen, was for them of vital importance.

Invasion of Belgium Long Intended.

By going through Belgium the Germans could strike a French frontier that was practically unguarded by fortifications. The possibilities of this route were so fascinating that long before war broke out the German general staff had determined to make use of it.

The German Demand.

Realizing Belgium's dangerous situation, Sir Edward Grey on July 31st, asked both France and Germany whether in case of war they would respect Belgian neutrality. France at once replied in the affirmative, but Germany demurred and procrastinated. On August 2, German troops invaded and occupied the tiny duchy of Luxemburg which lies southeast of Belgium between Germany and France. On the same date, Germany demanded of Belgium the right to send her armies through their country. A reply must be given in twelve hours. In this awful dilemma the Belgian government did not hesitate. King Albert sent a "supreme appeal" to Great Britain to safeguard the neutrality of his country.

Great Britain Enters the War.

This example of German ruthlessness resolved all British doubt. Next day Sir Edward Grey, the British Foreign Minister, demanded that by midnight Germany should agree to respect the neutrality of Belgium. This Germany refused to do, and the British Ambassador left Berlin. When he paid his farewell call on the German Chancellor, Von Bethmann-Hollweg, the British Ambassador found him "very agitated." The Chancellor harangued the Briton, declaring that Great Britain was taking a terrible step just for a word, "neutrality," "just for a scrap of paper." The same day in the Reichstag the Chancellor admitted that the invasion of Luxemburg and Belgium was "a breach of international law," but he justified it on the ground that "we are now in a state of necessity and necessity knows no law." Great Britain declared war on Germany the next day.

Italy Remains Neutral.

Five of the great and two of the smaller Powers of Europe were now at war. Montenegro, which was allied by blood and treaty with Servia, also speedily entered the conflict. The Central Powers had some hope that Italy, which was a member of the Triple Alliance, would enter the war on their side. But this alliance had long been irksome to Italy, and she was out of sympathy with the purpose of the war. On the ground that the Triple Alliance bound her to aid her Allies only in case of defensive war and that this was offensive in character, Italy

announced her neutrality. To France she hurriedly conveyed the information that France need be under no apprehension of attack by her. This information was of great importance, for it enabled the French to leave their southeastern border unguarded and mass all their forces to meet the German hosts.

Japan Declares War.

Soon after the war began, Japan, who was an ally of England, sent an ultimatum to Germany demanding her withdrawal from the Orient, and when an unfavorable reply was returned, declared war. With some British assistance, the Japanese then proceeded to conquer Kioa-Chau on the Shantung Peninsula. She also occupied the Caroline, Marshall and Ladrone islands, which Germany had purchased from Spain after the Spanish-American War. No Japanese troops were, however, ever sent to Europe. The Japanese part consisted largely in supplying munitions of war to the Allies, especially to Russia, to whom they were sent over the Trans-Siberian Railway. Later in the war some of her war vessels did patrol duty in the Mediterranean against the submarines.

German Hatred of Great Britain.

Early in the conflict Germany represented that the war was a duel between Teutonic civilization and Slavic barbarism. After the entrance of Great Britain, however, and especially when they realized that her powerful navy might prove a deciding factor, Germans changed their view somewhat and began to assert that "perfidious Albion," jealous of Germany, had perfected a plot for her destruction. The German poet Lissauer wrote the famous *Chant of Hate*, the last verse of which is as follows:

"Come, hear the word, repeat the word,
Throughout the Fatherland make it be heard.
We will never forego our hate,
We have all but a single hate,
We love as one, we hate as one,
We have one foe, and one alone—
ENGLAND!"

Responsibility for the War.

In adjudging the responsibility for the war, sight should not be lost of the fact that repeated offers were made to submit the dispute to arbitration or to a conference of the Powers, but the Central Powers were determined to chastise Servia and rather than forego that pleasure, they were willing to precipitate a general war. Upon the Austrian government and especially upon Count Berchtold, the Austrian Prime Minister, who falsified facts in order to bring on the conflict, lies a heavy responsibility. But the war would never have occurred but for the support and secret instigation of the German Kaiser. Centuries

BELGIAN TROOPS IN ACTION

before his ancestors had been mere robber barons on the border of Switzerland. Then one member of the House bought Brandenburg and became an Elector of the Holy Roman Empire. His successors by marriage, purchase and war, but mainly by war, had increased their possessions until they ruled over the mightiest state on the European continent, the mightiest military power in the world. Seeing how a policy of "blood and iron" had won for Germany great advantages in the past, the Kaiser and most of his deluded subjects believed that she might procure still mightier future advantages. For many years the German War Lords had been strengthening the great military machine, and they believed that the time was ripe to strike for world domination. The German people themselves believed that for them it must be either victory or annihilation; in the words of Bernhardi, they struck for "world power or downfall."

Issue at Stake.

As regards resources, the advantage in potential strength was on the side of the Entente Allies. The total area of Germany was only 210,000 square miles, that of Austria-Hungary only 261,000 square miles, and though Germany owned about a million square miles in her colonies, with a population of about fourteen millions, only about twenty thousand were of the Caucasian race. Germany's population was about seventy millions; Austria-Hungary's, about fifty millions. Russia's territory in Europe alone was four times that of the Central Powers combined, to say nothing of some six million square miles in Siberia. Her European population was twenty millions in excess of that of her enemies combined. France was slightly less in size than Germany, and her population lacked about ten millions of that of Austria-Hungary. The British Isles had a total area less than half that of Austria-Hungary, but the population lacked only about five millions of being as great. Servia, Montenegro and Belgium combined had an area of about 50,000 square miles and a population of about thirteen millions. The total European population of the Allies was about double that of the Central Powers. Furthermore, outside of Europe the Allies owned about two-fifths of all the land in the world and had hundreds of millions of subject peoples. From some of these colonies, notably from Algeria, Canada, South Africa, Australasia and India, the Allies were ultimately able to obtain a considerable number of soldiers to say nothing of supplies. The combined wealth of the Allies, also, was at least double that of the Central Powers.

Comparative Resources.

On the sea, with the great British fleet, the Allies had a great superiority. The French navy was more powerful than that of Austria-Hungary, and Russia also had a considerable fleet, both in the Baltic and in the Black Sea. The German navy was much stronger than

Allied Naval Superiority.

that of France, being, in fact, second in the world, but it lacked much of being equal to that of Great Britain. In dreadnoughts, super-dreadnoughts, pre-dreadnoughts, battle-cruisers, destroyers and submarines, the British had marked superiority. The muzzle energy of the British battleships of later types was about double that of German vessels of corresponding types, while the disparity in older battleships was even greater. Of up-to-date battleships and battle cruisers the Allies had a total of fifty-one; the Central Powers only twenty-two. In docks and coaling stations in different parts of the world, the Allies enjoyed an enormous superiority. Naval experts in neutral countries generally expected that the Allied navies would control the high seas from the outset, and so the event proved.

Teutonic Military Strength.

It was on land, however, that the Central Powers hoped to win the war, and upon the land they had marked superiority, though rather in equipment and training than in numbers. The peace strength of the German army was about 870,000, but it could be rapidly increased to upwards of five million men already trained. The French peace strength was 790,000, but by taking in reserves, France could expand her army to a size almost equal to that of Germany. Austria-Hungary had a peace force of 436,000, with about three million trained reserves. On paper Russia's peace strength was about 1,384,000, and her war strength upwards of five million, but many of these men were poorly trained and inadequately equipped. Great Britain's regular force was only 137,500, but she had, in addition, nearly double that number of so-called Territorials, troops comparable to our own National Guard but better trained. Servia, Montenegro and even Belgium had small armies. but they seemed negligible beside the tremendous armies of the larger Powers.

The German Military Machine.

The German army was the most formidable military force the world had ever seen. All that human forethought and energy could accomplish toward arming a nation had been done. For more than a century the Prussians had not lost a single important battle. Officers and men were thoroughly trained, and in almost every activity of German life attention had been given to making these activities aid military efficiency. In the construction and operation of the railways consideration was given to strategic questions. Corporations and individuals had been subsidized when they bought motor trucks that would be available for military purposes; factories were organized in such a fashion that they could speedily be made use of to produce war materials. A green-gray uniform had been evolved that was almost invisible at a distance; the army was supplied with a larger number of machine-guns than was the case in other armies; and great mobile howitzers had been

constructed that could destroy in a short time any fort then in existence.

Allied Armies.

The British army, man for man, was as good as the German army but it was so small as to be almost negligible, in fact, the Kaiser called it England's "contemptible little army." The French army was not far behind that of Germany, but it had a number of defects. In light field-guns it was as well equipped as that of Germany, but in guns of medium and long range it was deficient. The French Lebel rifle was not equal to the German Mauser; the French infantry still wore the glaring red trousers and black coats, which made them easily discernible to an enemy; and in shells and in the factories for producing them the French were far behind the Germans.

Other Teutonic Advantages.

Another advantage of the Germans and Austro-Hungarians lay in their central position. It was practically impossible for the French or British to send troops to aid the Russians, or for the Russians to send troops in considerable numbers to the Western Front. The Teutons, however, thanks to their central position and their splendid system of railways, could rapidly transfer troops from one front to another and thus reinforce endangered positions. Furthermore, the German General Staff during most of the war gave orders to all the armies of the Central Powers and thereby secured unity of effort. Though working for a common purpose, the Entente Allies, until the last few months of the war, had no central command, and their efforts were not well coordinated. When some problem arose that required unity of effort, days, weeks and months were often lost before an agreement could be reached. In modern warfare time is one of the most vital features, and Allied procrastination was responsible for many Allied disasters. While the Allies hesitated, the Germans acted and won many advantages. There came to be a saying, "Time and Von Hindenburg wait for no man."

Invasion of Belgium.

In accordance with the long prepared plan the Germans moved through Luxemburg and Belgium the mightiest force that had ever gone to war. On the 4th of August the German van attacked Liége, an important town in eastern Belgium which commanded one of the two main avenues through Belgium into France. Liége was defended by a ring of twelve forts. The main feature of these forts was a steel turret for the protection of the heavy guns. This turret was housed in a mighty mass of concrete, above which the turrets projected only a short distance. It was supposed that these forts were almost impregnable, but the Germans brought against them giant howitzers, firing immense shells filled with high explosive. By indirect fire these howitzers speedily destroyed some of the forts, and the Germans were able

to take Liége and march on into the interior of Belgium. The last fort held out until the 17th, but was unable to prevent the German advance.

Brussels Taken.

Long before this time the advanced German forces had moved on towards the heart of Belgium, fighting a number of conflicts with the little Belgian army. On August 20th, the Germans took Brussels, the capital, and levied upon it a tremendous indemnity of $40,000,000. Most of the Belgium army under King Albert, took refuge in the great fortified city of Antwerp, close to the frontier of Holland. It was hoped by the Allies that the Belgians would be able to hold Antwerp, and their presence there would constitute a danger to the German's advance into France. The Germans, however, detached troops to hold the Belgians in check and continued their march toward the French frontier. A considerable Belgian force tried to hold Namur, just north of the French frontier. Namur was strongly fortified, but the Germans brought up their mighty howitzers and in two or three days, compelled the place to surrender, but some of the garrison escaped. The Germans had now secured the crossings of the Meuse and Sambre and were ready for the invasion of France.

Frightfulness."

The Germans had hoped that the Belgians would make no resistance, or at worst, only a show of resistance. But when the Belgians bitterly contested the invasion of their country, the Germans were much angered, and they resorted to a deliberate policy of "frightfulness" in order to terrorize the people. German warfare had never been notable for gentleness, and in this war, in Belgium and elsewhere, Germans were guilty of deeds that horrified their enemies and the neutral world.

Two kinds of outrages.

German outrages in Belgium fall into two classes: those committed by soldiers on their own initiative, and those done as a result of a deliberate policy on the part of their commanders. In the first category were such offenses as thefts of food, wine and money, the killing of prisoners and civilians, and outrages upon women and girls. Comparatively little effort seems to have been made by the officers to hold the men in check, and many hideous crimes were committed by them. The acts of "frightfulness" that were committed as a part of a deliberate policy included the destruction of villages and towns, the use of civilians, including women and children, as screens against the bullets of the enemy, and the execution of large numbers of the civilian population.

Louvain.

Among the towns destroyed or partly destroyed was Louvain. The Church of St. Peter and the University, with its famous library of books and precious manuscripts, were among the buildings that were destroyed. Many of the civilians were shot or were sent prisoners to

GRENADIER GUARDS AT WATERLOO

TERRITORIALS IN TRAINING CAMP

Germany. At Dinant scores of civilians were deliberately shot down and the place was plundered. At Tamines, Aerschot, Andenne and many other places similar events took place. Not infrequently when resistance was offered at a place, or shots were fired at the German soldiers, a number of the prominent citizens, including perhaps the mayor and the curé, would be seized, stood up against a wall, and shot down. Altogether hundreds of Belgian civilians, including women and children, lost their lives as a result of German barbarism. Not all of Belgium was subjected to such horrors, but the spirit of active resistance was broken down.

French Invade Alsace and Lorraine.

Meanwhile what had the French been doing? Soon after the outbreak of hostilities they had begun a campaign designed to re-conquer the "lost provinces," Alsace and Lorraine. One army penetrated into Alsace, which was lightly held by the Germans, and took Mülhausen. Some of the territory thus taken had soon to be abandoned, but until the end of the war the French were able to retain a little strip of Alsace. Further northward two armies under Generals de Castlenau and Dubail undertook an invasion of Lorraine, and achieved some minor successes, but on August 20th, a great German army under Crown Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria and General von Herringen attacked the invaders and inflicted upon them a severe defeat. All of Lorraine that had been recovered by the French had speedily to be evacuated, and France had to devote all of her energies to meeting the German forces that were pouring down over her northern border.

Germans Invade France.

Even in so well prepared a country as Germany some time had been required to mobilize the military forces and transport them to the western frontier. The capture of Liége, Brussels and Namur was effected by the vanguard of the German forces. But by the end of the third week in August the German military machine was fully under way and was about to enter France. For the invasion the Germans had a force of about one and a half million men divided into five armies. Pushing through the Longwy Gap against the fortress of Verdun was the army of the German Crown Prince, the army to westward was commanded by the Duke of Wurtemberg, the next by General von Hausen, the next by General von Bülow, and the last by General von Kluck. A sixth German army under Crown Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria faced the French defenses in the region of Nancy.

Allies Ill Prepared.

The French were ill prepared to meet this invasion. Most of the best troops were concentrated along the eastern frontier, where some of them had participated in the unsuccessful invasion of Alsace and Lorraine. Along the Belgian frontier the French had only the two armies of Generals Langle de Cary and Lanrezac, while farther west-

ward was a small British army under General French. The two French armies were made up in large measure of comparatively poor material. The British army consisted of only two army corps and a considerable force of cavalry—in all about 75,000 men.

The British Army.

This British army had just arrived on the frontier, having been landed at Boulogne and other French ports. It was a splendid little army and contained many officers, non-commissioned officers and privates who had seen service in actual warfare. The men were trained to fight in open order and were skilled marksmen who had been taught to shoot only at a definite mark. It could doubtless have held its own against any force of equal size in the world. Its commander was Field Marshal Sir John French, a veteran of many of England's petty wars, including those in the Soudan and against the Boers.

Charleroi and Mons.

On August 21, the Germans began to attack the French forces in the region of Charleroi and the conflict soon extended to the British forces farther westward in the region of Mons. The French resisted desperately, but they were outnumbered and on the 23d were compelled to retreat. The British held their own, though attacked by almost double their numbers, and the British riflemen mowed down the German massed formations like grain before a reaper. But late on the afternoon of the 23d General French learned that the French army on his right had already retreated, while a German army corps was attempting to march around his left flank and get in his rear. Next day the English began to fall back.

The Great Retreat.

Thus began one of the most famous retreats known in history. From Verdun westward the French and British armies were falling back with the triumphant German armies in exultant pursuit. Fortunately the French fortress of Verdun, though hard pressed, held out. For twelve days and nights the retreat continued. Every hour there was bitter fighting, and repeatedly it seemed that the retiring forces might be overwhelmed and captured.

French Morale.

It was a desperate hour for France. Hordes of fugitives fled south to escape the invader. Paris itself was partly depopulated. On August 27th a Government of National Defense was created, with Millerand as minister of war, while General Gallieni was made military governor of Paris. On August 30th a German airplane dropped five bombs on the capital with a message which read: "The German army is at the gates of Paris; you can do nothing but surrender." To make the situation even more disquieting, it was known that German spies were everywhere. But, though the French people were uneasy, they remained calm. There were no barricades or talk of revolution. Doubtless every man asked himself, "Is it to be 1870 over again?" But there

GENERAL JOSEPH JOFFRE

GENERAL VON KLUCK AND WIFE

was no panic in the army or among the people, and the belief prevailed that all would yet be well. The preservation of French courage and confidence was partly due to the knowledge that a British army was in France. This army might be small, but behind it was all the power of the great British Empire. Fortunately the head of the French army, General Joseph Joffre, was an officer of courage and ability, and he had about him a group of able officers, including Foch and de Castelnau. Time was necessary to regroup the French forces. Joffre was well aware that a battle must be fought, upon the result of which would depend the fate of France, but he was resolved not to fight it until all possible preparations were made. This resolution involved permitting the invader to overrun some of the fairest parts of France, but to have faltered in it would have been fatal. As rapidly as possible he concentrated a large army about Paris for purposes that will be explained a little later.

Germans in Sight of Paris.

Meanwhile on foot, on bicycles, in motor cars and motor trucks, the Germans had followed the retreating enemy. On the 5th of September Von Kluck's army reached the outskirts of Paris, but instead of attempting to capture it, moved on after the French and British; for if the French and British armies were destroyed, Paris would have to surrender. The German soldiers believed that they were irresistible and seemed to have expected little further resistance, but just as victory seemed almost within their grasp, the German high commander began to realize that they were in grave danger.

Joffre's Appeal.

On the 5th of September, General Joffre issued an appeal to his soldiers, saying that the time had come to deliver the battle upon which the fate of the country hung and that there must be no more "looking backward. Every effort must be made to attack and drive back the enemy. Troops that can no longer advance must at all cost hold their ground, and die where they stand rather than retreat."

First Battle of the Marne.

Next day the French and British forces, on a front reaching from Paris to Verdun, turned and began a desperate onslaught on the invader. Over two million men were engaged in this stupendous conflict, which was, in fact, the mightiest battle that had been fought up to that time in world history. The main French effort was devoted to crushing Von Kluck's army on the German right wing. French and British recrossed the Marne River and assailed them in front, while another French army under Maunoury sallied from the Paris defenses and struck his right flank. If Von Kluck could be defeated the whole German line could be rolled up. Realizing that they had been outgeneraled, the German High Command, as the proper counter-stroke, massed mighty forces in an effort to break through the French center.

But General Joffre had foreseen this effort and had placed in command of the army that must meet it, the ablest and most resourceful of all the French generals, Ferdinand Foch. Foch was a great military theorist and had a will like iron. In his teaching at the Ecole de Guerre he had always emphasized that no battle is lost until it is believed to be so.

Foch.

For days the antagonists were locked in deadly struggle, with the lines swaying now backward, now forward. In the center and near Paris the conflict continued without an interruption. On the German right, though assailed by superior numbers, Von Kluck long held his own. In the center the Germans launched attack after attack upon the army under Foch. On the morning of the 9th it seemed as if the Germans by sheer weight of numbers might succeed in breaking through. Foch telegraphed to Joffre: "My left has been forced back; my right is routed, I shall attack with the center." Against such a will the German hosts fought in vain. The Imperial Guard was beaten and cut to pieces. A crack French division got through the German lines and into the German rear. Meanwhile, the stalemate on the right flank had been broken by General Gallieni's sending a reserve corps from Paris to the scene of action in a fleet of commandeered automobiles and taxicabs.

Gallieni.

Germans Retreat.

To save themselves from annihilation the German High Command were forced to order a general retreat. This retreat was executed with great skill, and the exhausted French and British were unable to make any large capture of prisoners. The Germans withdrew to the north of the Aisne River, dug themselves in, and stood at bay.

Results.

Thus ended the battle of the Marne, one of the decisive battles in world history. The great German effort to overwhelm France had failed. The Germans had overrun most of Belgium and they were able to retain in their control until near the end of the war, some of the richest districts of France, but the great object had not been achieved. Time was thus given for the French and even more to the British to mobilize their great potential resources.

Battle of the Aisne.

The French and British forces followed the retiring Germans and began the long-drawn-out conflict which is known as the battle of the Aisne. Each side in an effort to out-flank the other began extending its lines northwestward, and this process was continued until the North Sea was reached. In October the Germans succeeded in driving a wedge in the French line south of Verdun to the town of St. Mihiel on the Meuse River. In the same month they found leisure to lay siege to Antwerp. The ring of forts about the city was soon broken by shells from the mighty howitzers, and the city surrendered, but most of the

Antwerp Taken.

NAVAL GUN USED IN DEFENSE OF VERDUN

garrison succeeded in escaping along the sea coast and joined the French and British forces.

First Battle of Flanders.

Later in the same month, the Germans launched in Flanders a new drive, the immediate objectives of which were the Channel ports of Dunkirk and Calais. Had it succeeded, it would probably had been followed by an attempt to roll up the Allied lines and capture Paris. For weeks the struggle continued. The Germans threw in hundreds of thousands of troops, many of them reserves, fresh from civil life. More than once the Allied situation was desperate, but always the lines, though frightfully battered, managed to hold. British, French and Belgian troops participated in repelling these attacks, and the general oversight of the Allied defense was in the hands of General Foch. Ultimately, the battle died down, and when winter came the antagonists faced each other in entrenched lines reaching 400 miles from Switzerland to the North Sea.

British Preparations.

In the retreat from Mons a new British division had joined the British army. A few other regular troops and many Territorials arrived in France subsequently. Soon troops were even brought from India. In Great Britain a great campaign to secure recruits had been launched, under the direction of Earl Kitchener, who had been appointed head of the War Office immediately after the declaration of war. Of the original British army, the "Old Contemptibles," there remained only some fragments. Great Britain had, in fact, been forced to sacrifice most of her regular army in the effort to hold the German advance.

The Russian Front.

As already stated, the Teutonic plan of campaign was for Germany to throw practically the whole of her forces upon France and defeat her, while the task of holding the Russians in check was left chiefly to the Austria-Hungarian armies. As rapidly as possible the Austria-Hungarian forces were mobilized along the Russian frontier, and, with the help of a few German troops, an attempt was even made to invade Poland. But Russian mobilization proceeded more rapidly than had been expected, and ere long a number of powerful armies moved westward against their enemies. The general command of all the Russian forces was in the hands of Grand Duke Nicholas.

Great Russian Victories.

Late in August and early in September terrific battles took place in Galicia in the region of Lemberg. The Austrians were rapidly defeated and retreated westward pursued by the victors. Lemberg fell, and all of eastern Galicia was overrun. The Austrian army that had attempted to invade Poland was beaten at Lublin and had to retire across the border. The retreat of the army from Lemberg uncovered the right flank of the second army. Desperate battles were fought at

Rawa Ruska and Tomasov, and again the Austrians were beaten. The remnants of their forces retreated toward Przemysl and Cracow. By the middle of September the Russians had taken 250,000 prisoners, besides many cannon and vast quantities of war materials. They laid siege to Przemysl, and Cossacks, penetrating the passes of the Carpathians, threatened to raid the plains of Hungary.

Russian Invasion of East Prussia.

Meanwhile a quarter of a million Russians, divided into two armies, had begun an invasion of East Prussia. The German forces confronting them were comparatively weak, but the German task of defense was lightened by their control of the Baltic and by their system of strategic railroads and highways. The Russian northern army under General Rennenkampf won considerable successes near Stallupönen and at Gumbinnen. In the latter battle the Germans were badly beaten and lost many prisoners; those who escaped took refuge in the port of Königsberg. The southern Russian army under General Samsonoff defeated another German force at Frankenau. Some of the defeated Germans retreated westward, while the others joined their comrades in Königsberg.

A German Blunder.

These battles in East Prussia took place in the same period that the Germans occupied Brussels, took Namur, and drove back the British and French from Charleroi and Mons. From the Western Front the news that came to Berlin was wholly satisfactory, but from East Prussia came tidings of defeat, while fugitives fled westward before the Cossack invasion. To retrieve the situation in East Prussia, the German military authorities selected a new commander and also recalled two army corps from the Western Front. Of all the German military blunders during the war, this weakening of the western armies was perhaps the most fatal. It would have been better to have permitted temporarily the Russians to work their will in East Prussia and to have kept those army corps for service in the great battle that was to decide the fate of France. At the Marne the decision long hung by a hair, and a single army corp thrown at the right moment against the French center might perhaps have brought to the German armies an overwhelming victory and the downfall of France.

Von Hindenburg.

The new general chosen by the Imperial General Staff was Paul Von Hindenburg. This officer, who was sixty-seven years old, had seen service in the wars with Austria and France and had been wounded at the battle of Sadowa. Three years before the war began he had retired from active service and was living in Hanover. He was out of favor with the Kaiser, partly because some years before he had caustically criticised the Kaiser's management of an army in some military maneuvers. He had been passed over in choosing officers to

RUSSIAN COSSACKS IN A CHARGE

GENERAL VON LUDENDORFF

MARSHAL PETAIN

command in the war, but now some one recalled that Hindenburg had made a special study of the topography of East Prussia, including the maze of lakes and forests; he had, in fact, gained the reputation of being a crank on this subject. On the 22d of August Von Hindenburg received notice of his appointment and left for the Eastern Front, accompanied by General Eric Von Ludendorff, whom he had chosen as his Chief of Staff. Until the end of the war these two officers continued to work in conjunction, and their names went round the world.

Von Ludendorff.

Meanwhile troops had been gathered from different places and hurriedly sent over the superb system of German strategic railways. Within a few days Von Hindenburg had an army of about 200,000 men in front of the southern Russian army under Samsonoff. The region in which the armies faced each other was a labyrinth of lakes and now it was that Von Hindenburg was able to make splendid use of the knowledge he had gained by his long study of the topography of the country.

German Preparations.

The Russians were ignorant of the country, were weak in artillery and were poorly led. Von Hindenburg threw most of his army against the Russian left near Soldau and forced it backwards. Then by train and motor vehicles he affected a new concentration against the Russian left wing and drove it backward. Battered by German artillery and practically surrounded, the Russian army, involved in the labyrinth of lakes was practically annihilated. Tens of thousands were shot down or were drowned; eighty or ninety thousand were captured. Such was the great victory of Tannenberg. From that moment onward Von Hindenburg was the great German hero of the war. The destruction of this Russian army compelled the northern Russian army under Rennenkampf to retreat, and soon all of East Prussia was free from the invader. Leaving part of his army to hold Rennenkampf, Von Hindenburg transferred large forces by rail to the aid of his hard pressed Austrian Allies and enabled them temporarily to lift the siege of Przemysl.

Battle of Tannenberg.

Three times within the next three months, Von Hindenburg attempted to capture Warsaw, but each time he was driven back. After his third failure, Von Hindenburg suddenly transferred 200,000 men to East Prussia and practically destroyed a Russian army under General Sievers. Meanwhile the Russians and Austrians had continued to be locked in deadly conflict. Cossacks raided the plains of Hungary, and the Russians were again able to besiege the great fortress of Przemysl. Vain attempts were made to relieve the place, and the garrison tried to cut their way out but failed. Ultimately the fort's supplies were exhausted and on March 22, 1915, the place surrendered.

New German Victory.

Russians Take Przemysl.

The prisoners numbered 119,000, and the spoils included over a thousand cannon. This great victory caused great rejoicing in Allied countries. The Russians followed it up by desperate attacks upon the Carpathian passes and managed to capture the main range on a front of seventy miles. At the moment Allied prospects on the Eastern Front seemed bright, but the Central Powers massed forces for a mighty effort and succeeded within a few weeks in changing the entire situation.

Allied Fleets Control he Seas.

Some weeks before the outbreak of the World War, the greater part of the British fleet had been gathered in the North Sea for the annual maneuvers. When these were about to end, Winston Churchill, the First Lord of the Admiralty, suggested to the British Cabinet that in view of the threatening international situation, it would be better to keep the fleet together, and he received authorization to do so. As soon as Great Britain entered the war, the full power of the British navy made itself felt. The German fleet was blockaded in home waters. Some of the German merchant ships that were on the high seas were captured; others took refuge in home or neutral ports. Almost in a day the over-seas commerce of the Central Powers was destroyed. In this work the French navy played some part, and it also played the main part for the time being in blockading the Austrian navy in ports at the head of the Adriatic.

The Kiel Canal.

Thanks to the Kiel Canal, which had been deepened just before the war so that it would accommodate the biggest warships, the Germans were able to control the Baltic Sea. The Russian fleet in the Baltic was too weak seriously to dispute that control, while the canal above mentioned rendered it impractical for the British to send warships into the Baltic. In case the British had decided to send all their fleet into the Baltic, the Germans could have sent part or all their fleet to bombard the British coast and harry British commerce. In case the British had desired to send half their fleet into the Baltic, then the Germans could have concentrated all their navy against either half and could perhaps have destroyed each in detail.

The Goeben and Breslau.

Scattered here and there about the world were a number of German war vessels that for a time were able to cause the Allies considerable trouble. In the Mediterranean were the giant battle-cruiser *Goeben*, of 22,640 tons, and the protected crusier *Breslau* of 4,478 tons. On August 4th they bombarded a French port on the coast of Algeria, and the same day came in sight of a British squadron, but no conflict took place, as war between Great Britain and Germany had not yet been declared. The German vessels then entered the port of Messina in Sicily, but as Italy had remained neutral it was necessary for

them to leave in twenty-four hours or else be interned for the duration of the war. Acting under instructions by wireless from Germany, they left Messina and steamed as if for the Straits of Otranto and the Adriatic, through which they would have to pass to take refuge in an Austrian port. The British ships had expected them to follow this course and had taken a position in the Straits, while the swift scout cruiser *Gloucester* had been detached to watch their movements. But off Cape Spartivento they suddenly turned and headed for the Ægean Sea and meanwhile released into the air discordant vibrations from their wireless apparatus to prevent the *Gloucester* signalling to the British vessels their change in direction. The *Gloucester* followed but was unable to impede their movements, and the German ships were able to enter the Dardanelles and reach Constantinople. Treaties existed that forbade warships entering the Dardanelles without the consent of the Sultan, but German influence in Turkey had gained the ascendency, and so consent had been given. Ultimately these vessels played a large part in bringing about Turkey's entrance into the war on the side of the Central Powers.

The Karlsruhe and Emden.

Two German cruisers, the *Karlsruhe* and the *Emden*, gained prominence as commerce raiders. The *Karlsruhe* pursued her career of destruction in the West Indies, and off the coast of South America, but ultimately was blown up by the explosion of one of her own magazines. The *Emden's* operations were conducted in the Indian Ocean. She captured nearly a score of merchant vessels and sank a small Russian cruiser in the harbor of Penang. On November 9, 1914, she appeared off the Cocos Islands and sent a raiding party ashore to destroy the British wireless station, but just then the powerful Australian cruiser *Sydney* came in sight. The *Emden* fled, but was soon so injured by shells that she was run ashore on one of the islands. The raiding party managed to seize a schooner, sailed in her to Arabia, and after many exciting adventures finally reached Constantinople.

Battle of Coronel.

Some of the German warships in the Pacific sought refuge in neutral ports, but a considerable number gathered in a squadron commanded by Admiral Von Spee. On November 1st the squadron fell in with four British vessels off the northern coast of Chile. Christopher Cradock, the British commander, realized that his force was much inferior, but nevertheless, gave battle. In the engagement, Cradock's flagship, the cruiser *Good Hope* of 14,000 tons, and the cruiser *Monmouth* of 9,800 tons were sunk, and not one of the crew was saved. A converted liner and the light cruiser *Glasgow*, a very swift vessel escaped. The *Glasgow* steamed round the southern end of South America and took refuge in the Falkland Islands off the east coast of Patagonia.

Battle of the Falkland Islands.

News of this German victory caused great rejoicing in Germany and corresponding depression in Great Britain. To retrieve the situation the English secretly sent out a powerful squadron under Vice-Admiral Sturdee. Included in this squadron were the two giant battle-cruisers *Invincible* and *Inflexible*. The Seven Seas are wide, and a long search seemed probable, but Sturdee had great luck. His squadron reached Port Stanley in the Falkland Islands on December 7th, and next morning the Germans obligingly appeared in sight, intending no doubt, to destroy the wireless station and to seize some British coal. The British ships steamed out to sea, and a running fight ensued, in which the British sank all the German ships except the swift cruiser *Dresden* The *Dresden* returned to the Pacific, but some weeks later was sunk by British vessels close to the Island of Juan Fernandez. She was the last German warship to remain afloat on the high seas, but a few merchant ships that had been transformed into commerce raiders were able to continue their operations somewhat longer.

German Plans.

The German naval authorities realized that their fleet was too weak to give battle to the great British fleet with much hope of success. Accordingly they adopted a policy of keeping their vessels close to home ports, where they were under the protection of land guns, mine fields and submarines. They hoped by means of their submarines and Zeppelins and perhaps by drawing the British to attack their land fortifications, so to reduce the strength of the British navy that their fleet would be able to meet it on more equal terms. At the very beginning of the war they began laying mine fields where the British war ships would be likely to go, and their submarines displayed considerable activity.

The Revolution of the Submarine.

In this war submarines received their first real test in actual warfare. This type of vessel was not, however, a new thing. An under-water vessel was constructed early in the seventeenth century by a Dutchman, and in our own Revolution a submarine called the *Turtle*, invented by a Yankee named Bushnell, gave the British flagship *Eagle*, lying off Staten Island, a great scare but failed to sink her. Down to that time the only motive power that could be used on a submarine was man power, and, of course, it was impossible to develop an effective type of vessel because of this handicap. In the Crimean War and in our own Civil War, submarines were constructed but proved of little value. The men most prominent in perfecting the modern submarine were two Americans, Simon Lake and John B. Holland. At the outset of the war all the chief nations had submarines of varying merit. The British had even more than the Germans, but as German war vessels rarely ventured out upon the open sea, the British had comparatively

few opportunities of attacking the ships of their enemies. At first even the German submarines were comparatively small and had a short cruising radius.

Weddigen's Exploits.

On September 22, 1914, the German *U-9*, commanded by Lieutenant Otto Weddigen sank off the Hook of Holland three big British armored cruisers, *Aboukir*, *Cressy* and *Hogue*. In this disaster the British not only lost the ships but also 1400 men. Weddigen became one of the heroes of Germany and received the Iron Cross. In the following March, in the *U-29*, he attacked the British Grand Fleet off the coast of Scotland, but the submarine was rammed by the British ship *Dreadnought*, and all on board the submarine were lost.

Comparitive Ineffectiveness against War-ships.

As time passed the British grew more cautious, and were able to guard themselves better against submarine attacks. The Germans were able to sink a considerable number of small cruisers, gunboats and destroyers, and even a few old battleships. But during the whole war the German submarines were not able to sink a single Allied dreadnought. One British dreadnought, the *Audacious*, was, however, sunk as a result of striking a German mine off the northeast coast of Ireland. A considerable number of smaller warships met a similar fate.

Failure of "Whittling."

The British built warships so rapidly, however, that construction proceeded more rapidly than destruction. The German plan of "whittling" failed. As time passed, the disparity in strength between the two fleets increased rather than diminished.

Raids on English Coast.

Partly in order to prevent the people from becoming too discouraged by the fact that the German fleet had been swept off the high seas, the German naval authorities sent vessels to bombard the English towns of Whitby, Hartlepool and Scarborough. These places were not fortified, and the German ships were able to destroy on December 16th numerous buildings and kill more than one hundred non-combatants, including many women and children. This attack caused much indignation in Great Britain, where it was denounced as barbarous and contrary to the rules of international law. In the fourth week of January a powerful German fleet, including the battle-cruisers *Von Moltke*, *Seidlitz* and *Derfflinger* and the big armored cruiser *Blücher*, started across the North Sea to make another raid, but off the Dogger Banks they were discovered by a still more powerful battle cruiser squadron under Vice-Admiral David Beatty. The Germans turned and steamed for home, hotly pursued by the British. The *Blücher*, which was slower than the battle-cruisers, fell behind, and was sunk, but the other vessels managed to take refuge behind mine fields, and the British gave up the pursuit. For many months no further attempts were made by German warships to molest the English coast.

The Blücher Sunk.

The Blockade.

Meanwhile the Allies were making use of their preponderance in sea-power to apply increasing pressure upon the Central Powers. Soon German trade was reduced to petty transactions with neutral states such as Switzerland, Holland and the Scandinavian countries. The Allies by pressure upon these neutral states were partly able to prevent them from bringing in goods from the outside world, and then sending them into Germany. Ultimately this blockade was severely felt in the Central Powers. Copper, gasoline, rubber and many other articles, including even food, became scarce. Exports from Germany except to the neutral countries already mentioned ceased almost altogether. As Germany especially was mainly a manufacturing and commercial nation, this state of affairs spelled economic ruin.

Importance of Sea-power.

It had not escaped the German leaders that in previous world wars, the ultimate victory went to the side that controlled the sea. This thesis had been ably set forth by an American, Captain Alfred E. Mahan, and his books had been widely read in both Germany and England. As the hope of whittling down the British navy to a size approximating that of Germany diminished, the German leaders began to realize that unless some method could be found of breaking the Allied blockade they must in the end be beaten.

Submarine Warfare against Merchant Vessels.

On February 4, 1915, Germany announced that after two weeks all the waters about Great Britain would be a "zone of war" and all enemy merchant vessels found therein would be sunk even if it did not always prove possible to save the passengers and crew. Neutral vessels were warned that if they entered this zone they would be exposed to grave danger. This announcement meant that the Germans intended to use their submarines as commerce destroyers. One of the best established rules of international law stipulated that no merchant vessel must be sunk until the safety of those on board had been provided for. Such a vessel must first be summoned to surrender; in case it elected to resist or to attempt to escape, it could be fired upon or otherwise injured, but in case it surrendered, even after resistance or flight, it must not be sunk until those on board had been taken off and put in safety. Submarines were not fitted to conduct war upon merchantmen and comply with these rules. They were too small to be able to take on board the passengers and crew of a large vessel. The crew of a submarine was rarely large enough to spare a crew to put aboard a captured merchantman. Furthermore, in the present case, if a submarine did capture a merchant vessel and should send her toward a German port the chances were overwhelming that she would be re-captured by British warships. International law grants to belligerent merchantmen the right to carry guns for their protection. Submarines were fragile,

and even one compartively small but well placed shell might destroy one of them. For this reason, as well as for others, submarines often sped a torpedo at the victim without giving any warning whatever. In order to accomplish this it was necessary for the submarine commander to locate the vessel by looking through his periscope, which must project above the water, but the periscope was small and often was not noticed by those on board the doomed ship.

Murder on the High Seas.

Many neutral nations, including some European states, protested against the German plan of unlimited submarine warfare, but in vain. Many vessels, among them a considerable number of neutral merchant ships, were sent to the bottom. In some instances the crews and passengers were first taken off and put in open boats before the ship was sunk, but in many cases no warning whatever was given, and the first indication of an attack to those on board the vessel was the explosion of the torpedo. Even in cases where the passengers and crew were put in open boats many lives were lost as a result of exposure, starvation, or the upsetting of the boats. As related in the previous volume, the most horrible instance of German "frightfulness" in this respect was the sinking of the *Lusitania*. Repeated American protests against this and other outrages produced a temporary partial cessation of this method of warfare.

German Colonies Conquered.

The control of the high seas enabled the Allies to capture the German colonies. The Japanese, with some British help, took Kiao-Chau in China, and the Japanese also occupied the Caroline, Ladrone and Marshall islands. In Africa British and French troops soon conquered Togoland and Kamerun. The Germans had hoped to receive aid from the Boers in South Africa, but in this they were disappointed. The Premier of the South African Union was General Louis Botha, once commander-in-chief of the Boer army; but the magnanimous course of the Liberal party in England, when it came into power, toward the Boers had caused Botha to give a solemn pledge that Britain should never regret her liberality. A few Boers under the leadership of Generals Beyers and De Wet attempted a revolution, but it was speedily put down. General Botha himself led a South African force that overran German Southwest Africa. Subsequently General Jan C. Smuts, who had been second in command in this campaign, led forces that conquered practically all of German East Africa. In this campaign a celebrated African hunter, F. C. Selous, lost his life. Owing to the extent of the country and the difficulties of communication, a small German force in this colony managed to escape capture until the end of the war.

Zeppelins.

The exigencies of warfare brought about rapid improvements in aircraft. Aerial vessels were of two kinds: lighter than the air machines, that is, balloons and dirigibles; and heavier than air machines, that is, airplanes. Captive balloons had been used more for observations purposes in warfare as early as the battle of Fleurus in 1794; they had repeatedly been used in later wars; and they were used a very great deal in this. The Germans built great hopes upon their dirigibles, especially that type that had been developed by Count Zeppelin, for whom they were named. The Zeppelins were cigar-shaped craft hundreds of feet long and containing many compartments for the retention of gas. The framework holding the craft together was constructed in large part of aluminum. Beneath were one or more cars for the use of the passengers and containing one or more powerful engines to turn the propeller. Air vessels of this type were enormously expensive, and though capable of making long voyages in quiet weather, they were very fragile and were easily damaged or destroyed by high winds. Furthermore, they furnished an enormous mark for anti-aircraft guns, and were so difficult to manœuver that ultimately they proved to be at the mercy of the faster airplanes. At the outset, however, the German people expected the Zeppelins to sink British dreadnoughts and blot out enemy fortresses and cities.

Airplanes.

Airplanes were of two types: biplanes and monoplanes. Originally invented by the Wright brothers of Akron, Ohio, the airplane had in recent years received its highest development in Europe. From the beginning they were much used for scouting purposes to ascertain what the enemy was doing. Their use made it exceedingly difficult for an enemy to make secret concentration of troops and effect a surprise. Naturally each army was anxious to prevent the enemy's planes from knowing its movements, and conflict between planes resulted. At first the weapons used in such fights were mainly pistols or rifles, but soon machine-guns began to be installed.

Different Types.

The exigencies of warfare quickly resulted in the development of various types of planes. Some were used mainly for observation purposes; for searching the enemy's movements, ascertaining the location of his batteries, and directing the fire of their own artillery. Observation planes were usually comparatively slow craft and carried at least two persons, one the pilot, the other the observer. Before long the observers were taking photographs of enemy positions; these photographs could later be studied at leisure, and were often used in making of maps of the enemy's lines. Observation planes ordinarily carried one or more machine guns but depended for protection in large measure upon their own fighting planes.

Fighting planes were of various types, but the most favored was a small but exceedingly swift craft that carried only one man, who acted both as pilot and as fighting man. The machine-gun on some such craft was aimed by pointing the plane itself in the direction of the enemy, the machine-gun and the propeller being so syncronized that the bullets passed through the arc traversed by the propeller only when the blade was not there. Some fighting planes were, however, large craft, carrying two or more persons, and at the end of the war some were even armed with small cannon.

Fighting Planes.

Another type was the bombing plane. All aircraft could carry small bombs, but ultimately very large and exceedingly powerful planes were constructed for this special purpose. Toward the end of the war some of these planes could carry a ton or more of such weapons of destruction. As time passed more and more attention was paid to bombing operations against enemy troops, arsenals, railway stations and cities. Whole squadrons of planes would be sent out on such expeditions. The total damage resulting from such raids, however, was infinitesimal compared with the destruction affected by shell fire.

Bombers.

Considerable use came to be made of airplanes against troops on the ground. Airplanes would swoop down and turn their machine-guns upon troops on the march or upon supply trains and sometimes would effect considerable damage. This use of planes was used most considerably in aiding or in helping to repel an offensive movement.

Plane Attacks Upon Troops.

Battles in the air between planes were to the highest degree dramatic. On the ground war had begun to be largely impersonal. A soldier was killed by a shell by some gunner miles distant, firing "by the map" or by direction of some aerial observer. In trench warfare and in charges personal conflicts occasionally took place, but it is safe to say that most men killed in the Great War neither saw nor were seen by the men who killed them. In the air, however, it was generally plane against plane, and the element of personal skill was generally the deciding factor. Such conflicts usually took place thousands of feet up in the air, and not infrequently tens of thousands of soldiers on the earth beneath were spectators. Some airmen, successful because of skill and daring, began to win reputations for the number of enemy aircraft they had shot down.

Dramatic Conflicts.

On both sides anxious attention was paid to perfecting aircraft. Each side alternately would enjoy a brief advantage. The Germans would perfect a swifter and more powerful plane, but soon it would be outmatched by a new type developed by the Allies. It is probably not too much to say that four years of warfare produced as much development in aircraft as would normally have resulted in fifteen or

Rapid Improvement Due to War.

twenty years of peace. Aircraft in use at the beginning of the war were almost as antiquated four years later as the Tom Thumb Engine is to-day.

SECTION II.—TURKEY AND ITALY ENTER THE WAR.

Great Britain and Turkey.

For generations Turkey's main supporter in Europe had been Great Britain. Great Britain's policy in this respect was dictated not so much by love of the Turks as by fear of Russia. Repeatedly Great Britain had interfered to save Turkey from Russian aggressions, and beyond question Constantinople would long before have been in Muscovite hands had it not been for Great Britain.

German Influence in Turkey.

But times had changed. British fear of Russia, "the Bear that walks like a Man," had been replaced by dread of Germany, and in 1907 British differences with Russia had been composed and the two nations and France had united in the somewhat vague alliance known as the Triple Entente. British interest in the preservation of Turkey diminished, nor did the fact that Britain was now allied with their most formidable enemy escape the Turks. Of this situation Germany took shrewd advantage, and gradually British influence in Turkey was supplanted by German influence.

The "Young Turks."

A few years before the Great War broke out there was organized in Turkey an order known as the Young Turk movement. A group of Turkish liberals seized control and reduced the Sultan to a figurehead. In western countries great hopes were entertained that this revolution would prove to be the beginning of an order in Turkey. But the Turkish people were not ready for self-government, and presently control of the Turkish government fell into the hands of a small ring of unscrupulous men, among the most prominent of whom were Talaat, Enver and Djemal. Talaat was Minister of the Interior and was head of the Committee of Union and Progress, as the political ring which controlled the destiny of Turkey was called. Enver was Minister of War and had married a daughter of the Sultan. Djemal was Minister of Marine and head of the Constantinople police force.

The German Cruisers.

We have already seen how by secret arrangement with the Turkish government the German cruisers *Breslau* and *Goeben* were permitted to take refuge at Constantinople. International law provided that they must leave port within twenty-four hours or else be interned for the duration of the war. A pretense was set up, however, that Turkey had bought the ships of Germany; this of itself was contrary to international law, nor did the German crews leave the ships.

ST. PETERS AND VATICAN, ROME

IMPERIAL PALACE, VIENNA, AUSTRIA

Turkey Dragged in.

The presence of these ships enabled the pro-German members of the government to bring Turkey into the war against the wishes of many of the people. At the outset of the conflict, however, the Teutons considered it better for Turkey to remain neutral, at least for a time; they hoped to win the war speedily and did not wish a situation to be created that would necessitate their dividing part of their spoils with Turkey. But the defeat at the Marne dissipated this Teutonic hope. Word was sent from Berlin to Constantinople that Turkey must come in. Late in November, 1914, the *Breslau* and *Goeben* and a few Turkish vessels bombarded Odessa and other Russian ports on the Black Sea and thus precipitated Turkey into the conflict.

Turkey's Resources.

Turkey's navy was weak, and her treasury was bankrupt, but her entrance into the war was a great triumph for the Teutons. Turkey's finances could be bolstered up by German gold, and the Turkish army under German training and leadership and supplied with German munitions would prove a formidable force. It was hoped also that Turkey's entrance would be followed by uprising among the millions of Mohammedan subjects in the possessions of Great Britain, Russia and France. A *jehad* or Holy War, was, in fact, proclaimed at Constantinople against the Allies, but the results proved disappointing. The geographical position of Turkey made her entrance into the war very embarrassing to the Allies. Her troops could threaten the Suez Canal, and endanger British connection with India and other Oriental possessions; while India itself might be endangered by Turkish troops passing through Persia. Russia must detach large forces to protect her Caucasus frontier. A hostile Turkey meant, furthermore, that Russian wheat and other agricultural products could not be taken through the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles, to the Mediterranean, and that munitions of war from Great Britain and France could not be returned in exchange to Russian Black Sea ports. This was all the more serious because Germany controlled the Baltic Sea, and Russia's only available means of communication with the outside world was by means of the long Trans-Siberian Railroad to Vladivostok, or by way of Archangel, the White Sea and the Arctic, a route that was closed by ice in winter.

Suez Canal Endangered.

Russia Cut Off.

British Blockade Turkey.

Soon after Turkey's entrance into the war Great Britain formally annexed Cyprus, which, though a Turkish possession, had been in British control since 1878. Turkey's shadowy suzerainty over Egypt was also brought to an end, and the pro-Turkish Khedive was dethroned and Hussein Kemal, son of a former ruler, was given the title of Sultan. The Allies also closely blockaded the Dardanelles and the Turkish ports of the Ægean and Mediterranean. A British submarine

even succeeded in diving under the Turkish mines in the Dardanelles and penetrating to the Sea of Marmora, where it sank the old battleship *Messudieh*. At first the Turks, with the aid of the German cruisers *Breslau* and *Goeben*, were able to control the Black Sea, but ultimately the Russians defeated them and blockaded the Turkish coast in that region. Both the Turks and their Teutonic allies were exceedingly anxious to capture the Suez Canal, but many obstacles lay in the way of realization of this project. British warships controlled the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, and the only possible route by which assailants could come was through the desert region that lies to the eastward of the Canal. The nearest railroad, that from Damascus southward into Arabia, was some two hundred miles distant. Nevertheless, the Turks gathered a considerable army in Syria, collected thousands of camels and other beasts of burden, and set out for their objective.

Suez Canal Attacked.

Early in February they attempted to capture the water-way, which was defended by warships and a considerable number of troops, mainly from the British colonies. The attempt was beaten off with heavy Turkish losses, and several hundred Turkish prisoners, taken in the engagement, were paraded through the streets of Cairo for the moral influence on Turkish sympathizers in Egypt.

Desirability of Opening the Straits.

Allied strategists realized that it would be tremendously helpful to their cause if they could open the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora and the Bosphorus. Capture of these waterways would cut Turkey into two unequal parts and would probably result in her early retirement from the war. Furthermore, a waterway would be opened between the western Allies and Russia.

Naval Attack Decided Upon.

In England much difference of opinion existed as to whether the enterprise should be undertaken. Winston Churchill, First Lord of the Admiralty, favored the enterprise. It was clear that the attempt would be more likely to succeed if both troops and ships participated, but Earl Kitchener, Secretary of War, refused to spare troops, and the first attack was undertaken wholly by the navy.

First Attack.

On February 19th British and French warships began to bombard Kum-Kale and Sedd-el-Bahr, the Turkish forts that defended the entrance to the Dardanelles, and soon killed or drove out the garrison. At this point the Strait is about four miles wide, further up it widens out somewhat, but about a dozen miles from the entrance there is a narrow constriction called the "Narrows," and it was here that the Turks had their main defenses. The Allied commanders moved with great deliberation, and a month passed before they made the attack upon the Narrows, the defenses of which had meanwhile been considerably strengthened. All the Allied battleships that participated

were comparatively antiquated with the exception of the new British dreadnought *Queen Elizabeth*, which was one of the most powerful ships afloat. The French battleship *Bouvet* and the British battleships *Irresistible* and *Ocean* were sunk either by gun-fire or by running against floating mines, while other ships were injured. The Turkish batteries suffered severely, and some of their guns were silenced. It is now known that the Turks had practically exhausted their supply of heavy shells; had Allied commanders possessed the determined spirit of Nelson or Farragut, they would have gone through. As it was they gave up the attempt and waited for the arrival of military forces.

Failure at the Narrows.

Owing to the Allied necessities on the Western Front, it was difficult to find troops for the Dardanelles enterprise, and it was not until April that a landing could be attempted. Even then the troops were for the most part comparatively untrained men from the British and French colonies, splendid raw material, but hardly up to the task that lay before them. Smaller forces of thoroughly trained soldiers would no doubt have proved more effective. On the morning of April 25th landings were affected at the tip of the Gallipoli Peninsula and at Gaba Tepe, somewhat further up the peninsula on the Ægean side. The landing at the latter place was made by the Austrialian-New Zealand Army Corps, who came to be known as the "Anzacs." Heavy losses were suffered in making these landings. A French force landed on the Asiatic side of the Straits but met with such opposition that they had to withdraw to their ships.

Landing on the Gallipoli Peninsula.

In the weeks that followed bitter fighting took place on the Gallipoli Peninsula. The British and French on shore were aided greatly by the fire from their warships, but late in March a German submarine appeared on the scene and sank the British pre-dreadnought battleships *Majestic* and *Triumph*. British submarines repeatedly penetrated to the Sea of Marmora and sank a number of Turkish vessels. As time passed the Turkish defenses grew more formidable. German officers and gunners were continually arriving to aid in the defenses, while shells were smuggled through Roumania and Bulgaria or were brought to Turkey in Zeppelins.

Stalemate.

All this time the Allies had eagerly sought to persuade Greece and Bulgaria to enter the war and aid them to take Constantinople. Venizelos, the great Greek statesman and Premier, was anxious for his country to throw in its lot against the Turks; but King Constantine, who was a brother-in-law of Kaiser Wilhelm, opposed this course and forced Venizelos to resign. Bulgaria listened to bids from both belligerents, but wily King Ferdinand, who was sometimes called "the Fox of the Balkans," was determined to wait until he thought he could see to which side victory would come.

Balkan Intrigues.

Desperate Battles.

On June 4th the Allied troops at the south end of the Gallipoli Peninsula made a desperate assault upon the Turkish defenses and made some gains, but at the expense of heavy losses. Early in August a new landing was made at Suvla Bay, while the Anzac troops, heavily reinforced, made a desperate effort to carry the ridges ahead. A regiment of Gurkhas from India actually reached the top of Chanak Bahr, from which they could see the Turkish forts at the Narrows. If this position could have been held, guns could have been mounted, and they would have dominated the Turkish forts and would have compelled their evacuation, but reinforcements lost their way and the Gurkhas were driven back. Thus a second time the Allies missed success by the narrowest margin.

Failure.

Bitter fighting continued throughout the fall and early winter, but the Allies were unable to make any appreciable gains. In the autumn Bulgaria, encouraged by Russian defeats and the failure of the Dardanelles operations, entered the war. Teutonic and Bulgarian armies quickly overran Servia and Montenegro and opened the Berlin-to-Constantinople Railroad. Munitions of war and reinforcements were speedily sent to the aid of the Turks. Under these conditions to have continued the Dardanelles operations would have been hopeless. In December and January the positions on the Gallipoli Peninsula were evacuated. Thus closed another Allied disaster. The British alone had lost nearly 200,000 men, including 96,000 invalided home; while the French losses, including sick, amounted to about 35,000.

Allied Blundering.

The Dardanelles enterprise had been a magnificent conception; had it succeeded it would probably have shortened the war by two years. That it failed was due to Allied inability to do the right thing at the right time. A comparatively few thousand well trained troops co-operating with the navy at the time of the first attack could have accomplished what hundreds of thousands failed to do some months later.

A Blow to Allied Prestige.

The failure of the enterprise struck a heavy blow at Allied prestige and had much to do with the entrance of Bulgaria into the war on the side of the Central Powers. The only compensating advantages were that the Turks, too, had lost heavily and that they had been compelled to employ in defense of the Dardanelles troops that might have been used against the Suez Canal or against the Russians in the region of the Caucasus.

Mesopotamia.

In November, 1914, a British force of about 15,000, mainly troops from India, landed at the head of the Persian Gulf. The Turkish troops were beaten, and considerable territory was occupied. Reinforcements arrived, and in the following spring the army began to advance up the Tigris River towards Bagdad, the famous city of the

THE KREMLIN, RUSSIA

IMPERIAL PALACE, CONSTANTINOPLE, TURKEY

"Arabian Nights." Many delays were necessary, and it was not until November that the army, which was commanded by Major General Townshend, reached Ctesiphon, about a score of miles from Bagdad. Here the British were confronted by a superior army of Turks. A desperate battle took place, as a result of which the British had to retreat down the Tigris to Kut-el-Amara, where they were besieged. A relieving army landed at the head of the Persian Gulf and fought its way almost to Kut-el-Amara but was unable to relieve the place. After a siege lasting nearly five months Townshend's little army was forced by starvation to surrender. **British Disaster.**

Meanwhile heavy fighting had taken place along the Turko-Russian frontier south of the Caucasus Mountains. In January, 1915, the Turkish army under Enver Pasha was badly beaten by the Russians, who won a number of further successes. But the Teutonic invasion of western Russia prevented the Russians from making the most of these victories. Meanwhile, the Turks were fighting desperately at the Dardanelles, and for some months the war in the Caucasus region languished. **Turkish Defeats by the Russians.**

Late in December, 1915, however, Grand Duke Nicholas after being removed from chief command took charge of the operations against the Turks. In the next few months he won repeated victories and captured Erzerum, Bitlis, Trebizond and other places. It seemed possible that the Russian forces would be able to link up with the British army operating in Mesopotamia. **Grand Duke Nicholas.**

To the long-persecuted Armenians the war brought infinite misfortune. The native home of this unfortunate people is the rugged country lying in the region about Mt. Ararat, upon which, according to the Biblical story, Noah's Ark rested after the Flood. Unlike the Turks, the Armenians are a Caucasian people and are Christians. Some of them were fortunate enough to live in the region conquered by Russia in the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-'78. But considerably more than a million still languished under Turkish rule. Many of these lived in Constantinople and other Turkish towns, where they were very active in commercial and financial affairs. **The Armenians.**

For centuries the Armenians had been bitterly persecuted by their Mohammedan conquerors. Repeated massacres occurred even late in the nineteenth century, causing great indignation in western Europe. The half-civilized Kurds, a pastoral people who were neighbors of the Armenians in their native home, regarded the Armenians as their special prey, plundered them at will, murdered many of them, and carried off the women and young girls to their harems. **Former Persecutions.**

Systematic Extermination.

The Turkish rulers realized that the Armenians would probably render aid to the Russian armies. Furthermore, Talaat and other Turks believed that in earlier days the Turks had been guilty of a great blunder in their dealing with the Servians, Roumanians, Bulgarians, Greeks and other peoples under their control. These peoples had merely been kept in a state of subjection, with the result that ultimately they had regained their independence, and Turkey had lost practically all her European territory. The Turkish leaders resolved not to repeat this blunder in the case of the Armenians. A system of massacres and deportations was begun that ultimately resulted in the death of more than half a million Armenians. At Trebizond, for example, seven or eight thousand Armenians were put on board sailing vessels, were taken out into the Black Sea, and were then thrown overboard and drowned.

Young Women Saved.

The Turkish authorities did not, however, intend to kill all the Armenians. In the words of Henry Morgenthau, American Ambassador at Constantinople; "The most beautiful and healthy Armenian girls could be taken, converted forcibly to Mohammedanism, and made the wives or concubines of devout followers of the Prophet. Their children would then automatically become Moslems and so strengthen the empire, as the Janissaries had strengthened it formerly. These Armenian girls represent a high type of womanhood and the Young Turks, in their crude, intuitive way, recognized that the mingling of their blood with the Turkish population would exert a eugenic influence upon the whole. Armenian boys of tender years could be taken into Turkish families and be brought up in ignorance of the fact that they were anything but Moslems. These were about the only elements, however, that could make any valuable contributions to the new Turkey which was now being planned. Since all precautions must be taken against the development of a new generation of Armenians, it would be necessary to kill outright all men who were in their prime and thus capable of propagating the accursed species. Old men and women formed no great danger to the future of Turkey, for they had already fulfilled their natural function of leaving descendants; still they were nuisances and therefore should be disposed of."

Girls Put in Harems.

In large measure this policy was carried out "When the Armenian population was driven from its homes, many of the women were not killed, but reserved for a more humiliating fate. They were mostly seized by Turkish officers or civilian officials, and consigned to their harems. Others were sold in the market, but only to a Moslem purchaser, for they were to be made Moslems by force. Never again would they see parents or husbands—these Christian women condemned at

HIS HOLINESS, POPE PIUS XI

one stroke to slavery, shame and apostasy. The boys and girls were also very largely sold into slavery, at prices sometimes of only ten to twelve shillings, while other boys of tender age were delivered to dervishes, to be carried off to a sort of dervish monastery, and there forced to become Mussulmans."

Campaign for Italian Favor.

As already stated, Italy at the outbreak of the war had announced that she would remain neutral. This action made her exceedingly unpopular in Germany and Austria-Hungary, where there was much sneering about Italian decadence and cowardice. The Entente Allies speedily began a desperate campaign to persuade Italy to enter the contest on their side. In this effort they were greatly aided by the old Italian dislike of Austria-Hungary and by the fact that many people of Italian blood still lived under the Hapsburg yoke in "Italia Irredentia." The celebrated poet Gabriele d'Annunzio and some of the descendents of the famous Garibaldi declared in favor of the Allies, and two of the Garibaldis were killed fighting in the French cause. The Italian government put the army upon a war footing, and ultimately it became apparent that Italy would probably enter the conflict on the side of the Allies if Austria-Hungary did not make her important concessions in the way of territory. One article of the treaty that created the Triple Alliance gave Italy an excuse to make such a demand. Negotiations were entered into, but Austria attempted a policy of delay, and though she ultimately offered to make certain concessions, these did not satisfy the Italian demands. On May 3, 1915, Italy denounced the Triple Alliance treaty, and three weeks later she declared war on Austria-Hungary.

Italian Strength.

Italy's entrance into the war was a serious matter to the Central Powers. Her navy was stronger that that of Austria-Hungary, and her army amounted to 1,200,000 men, with many more in reserve. In Allied quarters it was hoped that Italy's entrance would bring a speedy end to the war. This might have proved true had it not been that the comparatively short frontier between Italy and Austria-Hungary runs for the most part through a region of exceedingly rugged mountains in which the problem of defense was comparatively easy. Toward the head of the Adriatic Sea there was a comparatively flat gap leading toward the Austrian city of Trieste, but even here the Isonzo River and the Carso Plateau were of great aid to Austria-Hungary.

Italian Plans.

In the early weeks of the war the Italians devoted most of their efforts to conquering the southern part of the Trentino in order to diminish the danger of an Austrian irruption against their left flank and rear. This accomplished, they began the main attack along the

Isonzo front, hoping to break through to Trieste and beyond that to the Austrian plain. But the Austrians had constructed some strong defenses even before the war began, and though the Italians managed to fight their way to the Isonzo, they were presently brought to a halt before the formidable Austrian defenses. The hope that Italy would be able to throw in a force that would end the war was soon disappointed. Within a few months a deadlock developed on the Italian front similar to that existing in France and Belgium.

SECTION III.—THE GREAT DRIVE AGAINST RUSSIA AND THE CONQUEST OF SERVIA.

Teuton Plans for 1915.

For the campaigns of 1915 the Central Powers reversed the plan of the preceding year. They stood upon the defensive on the Western Front and threw all their available forces against Russia. On the Western Front, owing to trench warfare, the Germans were able to hold their own with comparatively small forces, for the British and French were inadequately supplied with artillery and high-explosive shells, without which it was impossible to penetrate the German maze of defenses.

Russian Prospects.

Late in March, 1915, as already narrated, the Russians had taken Przemysl and 119,000 prisoners. They followed this up with an attempt to break through the Carpathians and succeeded in capturing many of the passes. In some quarters it was believed that the great Russian "Steam Roller," about which much had been said and written, was about to begin its real progress westward over the Central Powers. But the Teutons had been making vast preparations and during the coming months displayed even greater power than in the preceding year.

Hindenburg and Mackensen.

The Teutonic plan was to carry out a great offensive designed to destroy the Russian armies and overrun Poland. The immediate management of this campaign was in the hands of Marshal Von Hindenburg and General Von Mackensen, while over all stood the German General Staff, now headed by General Von Falkenhayn. Large Austro-Hungarian forces participated in the great "Drive," under the nominal command of their own generals, but the real conduct of the campaign was in the hands of the Germans.

Russian Line Broken.

Late in April Von Hindenburg invaded the Russian provinces along the Baltic, took Libau and other places, and began to press heavily against northern and western Poland. Meanwhile Von Mackensen made a heavy concentration of men and guns before the Russian lines in

FREDERICK WILHELM, CROWN PRINCE OF GERMANY

GENERAL AUGUST VON MACKENSEN

the region of Tarnow in Galicia. On May 1st hundreds of Teutonic cannon began a heavy bombardment that literally blasted the Russian defenses out of the ground. At ten the next morning the mighty force of infantry moved forward, broke through the Russian lines, and took thousands of prisoners. This defeat necessitated a Russian retirement, but whenever they attempted a new stand, the big Teutonic howitzers would be brought up, and the Russian position would be subjected to a hail of shell-fire to which, with their inadequate artillery and shell supply, they could make no effective reply. Time after time the Russian lines would again be broken and a new retreat would be necessary in order to avoid complete disaster. Relentlessly the Teutonic legions fought their way forward, retook Przemysl and Lemberg, and regained all except a small strip of Austrian Galicia. Russian reserves had been hurried up to stay this advance, but in vain. Hundreds of thousands of Russians were killed or wounded; and even larger numbers were captured. The Russians fought bravely, but they were inadequately supplied with artillery, shells and even rifles.

Causes of Defeat.

Russia is and was largely an agricultural country and did not possess great industrial factories and skilled workmen that could be utilized for the making of artillery and shells. Furthermore, many Russian officials were incompetent or corrupt, and the most possible was not made out of the resources that were available. With the Baltic Sea in the hands of the Germans and the outlet to the Black Sea under the control of the Turks, there remained available for bringing into Russia munitions of war only the port of Archangel on the White Sea and the long Trans-Siberian Railway. The route to Archangel was closed part of the year by ice, but considerable war supplies were brought thither from Russia's allies. However, Great Britain and France themselves were short of artillery and shells and could spare comparatively little. Arrangements had been made with Japan to furnish large supplies of munitions, but a crisis in the relations between Japan and China had caused the Japanese to withhold these supplies for a time in the thought that they might themselves have need of them. Inadequately armed and equipped, the Russian soldiers sacrificed themselves in myriads in the vain attempt to stop the great Teutonic Juggernaut.

Poland Conquered.

After the capture of Lemberg the Teutons were ready for their great offensive against Poland. This province was defended by some mighty fortresses, Ossowetz, Novo Georgievsk and Ivangorod, but the armies of Von Hindenburg began to press against Poland from the north and northwest, while those of Von Mackensen moved up from the south and southwest. The Russians fought desperately, but again

the Teutonic superiority in artillery enabled them to move forward inflicting terrific losses at comparatively small loss to themselves. In Russia all was excitement, and the churches were filled with people praying for the success of their armies. Their prayers proved unavailing against the blasts of the shells from the gigantic Teutonic howitzers. Poland was caught firmly between the jaws of a mighty nutcracker. One by one the Russian fortresses were taken. Warsaw was evacuated and was occupied by the victors on August 5th. The Teutonic hope of surrounding and capturing the Russian armies in one vast Sedan was not realized, but they had already succeeded in overrunning much Russian territory and in killing or capturing a large proportion of the Russian troops.

Teutons Advance Further.

After overrunning Poland the invaders penetrated still farther into Russia. In Allied countries it was hoped that the Russians would be able to make a stand on the line of Kovno, Ossowetz, and Brest-Litovsk, but all these places were captured before the end of August, and the great retreat had to be continued. In the north Von Hindenburg took Vilna, but Russian resistance then stiffened and he was held back from Dvinsk and Riga. Allied observers hopefully predicted that the Teutons would advance deep into Russia only to meet the fate that had befallen Napoleon's legions, but in this respect history did not repeat itself. The Teutons contented themselves with having overrun Poland and other western Russian provinces, and made no serious attempt to penetrate to Moscow.

Russia Not Yet Beaten.

For months the people of the Central Powers were kept busy celebrating the tidings of victory from the Eastern Front. The Russian losses had been so tremendous that at Berlin and Vienna it was confidently predicted that Russia would play no further important part in the war. Russian defeats, in truth, had been staggering ones, but Russia was not yet defeated. Russia still possessed great numbers of men, and the will to fight had not yet been exhausted. In October and November the Russians launched a counter-offensive in Galicia and Bukowina, taking considerable territory and many prisoners.

Change in Command.

Although the Grand Duke Nicholas, considering Russian weakness in munitions, had conducted the campaign with ability, he was relieved of the chief command in September and was transferred to the Caucasus, where he soon after achieved great successes over the Turks. The Czar created much enthusiasm among the people by assuming supreme command himself. The real management of military affairs, however, was in the hands of a new Chief of Staff, General Alexieff.

Bulgaria Enters the War.

Although Russia remained formidable, the defeats she had suffered greatly diminished Allied prestige. Ferdinand, the wily King of Bul-

garia, concluded that he knew to which side victory would incline and threw his sword into the scale in favor of the Central Powers, thereby making possible the conquest of Servia and Montenegro, and the opening of a route to Constantinople. Altogether, at the end of the year 1915, the prospects of Allied victory seemed infinitely more remote than had been the case in March when the Russians took Przemysl and were storming the Carpathian passes.

Civilian Suffering.

Teutonic victories on the Eastern front added many millions of noncombatants to those who were already suffering from the ravages of war. Tens of thousands of farmhouses, and hundreds of villages and towns had been destroyed in the provinces that had been overrun. During the remainder of the war these people suffered infinitely more from hunger than did the people of Belgium. A traveler through Poland in the following year wrote that the country was being systematically prepared for annexation to Germany. He saw many evidences of death and destruction wrought by the war.

A Sad Picture.

"In the great Hindenburg drive one year ago," he wrote, "the country was completely devastated by the retreating Russian army and the oncoming Germans. A million people were driven from their homes. Half of them perished by the roadside. For miles and miles, when I saw the country, the way was littered with mud-soaked garments and bones picked clean by the crows—though the larger bones had been gathered by the thrifty Germans to be ground into fertilizer. Wicker baskets—the little basket in which the baby swings from the rafters in every peasant home—were scattered along the way, hundreds and hundreds, until one could not count them, each one telling a death."

Failure of France and Great Britain.

The Teutonic victories over Russia in 1915 were rendered possible by the inability of France and Great Britain to make any effective diversion in behalf of their hard pressed Allies. Having desired to stand mainly on the defensive in the west, the Germans strengthened their defenses and were able to beat back all the Allied attempts to break through. The French army had suffered heavily in the campaign of 1914, while of the original British regular army there remained hardly more than some fragments. A great recruiting campaign was under way in Great Britain for volunteers, but these had to be trained, and, generally speaking, the real military force of Great Britain did not become available until the next year. To break through the German lines would require a decided superiority in artillery, and this the Allies did not possess. In guns of long and medium range the Germans still enjoyed the advantage.

"Nibbling." Aware of these weaknesses, General Joffre during most of 1915 followed a policy of what he called "nibbling." Instead of grand assaults, his attacks were for limited objectives. Early in the year he made attacks in Alsace and against German positions in Champagne. In March the British concentrated 300 cannon against German works in the region of Neuve Chapelle, and fired more shells than they had used in the whole of the Boer War. The troops then charged and succeeded in taking the blasted area and about 1,700 prisoners. But when they began to get beyond the reach of their own guns, they were held up by bitter German resistance and themselves suffered heavily. British newspapers called the conflict a "greater battle than Waterloo," but it soon became apparent that nothing decisive had been accomplished. About the same time a French offensive in the region of Arras made small gains. In April the French made desperate attacks upon St. Mihiel salient, southeast of Verdun, but suffered a bloody repulse.

Neuve Chapelle.

Poison Gas. The Germans were not content to remain entirely on the defensive. On April 22d, in front of Ypres, they launched an offensive, which, because of a new and startling weapon used, attracted worldwide attention. On the afternoon of that day Canadian and French Colonial troops who were holding the sector selected for attack, noticed white smoke rising above the German trenches, and a greenish cloud came drifting down upon them, driven by a north wind. When the cloud reached the trenches, the men began to cough and strangle in agony, and some fell dying. To the untutored French African troops it was evident that only supernatural causes could be responsible, and when behind the cloud waves men appeared wearing grotesque masks, the Colonials fled precipitantly.

An Awful Test. The flight of the Colonial troops left uncovered the left flank of the Canadians. Most of the Canadians were men fresh from civil life, only a few had seen active military service in the Boer War or elsewhere. All practically, however, were men who had been familiar with the use of fire-arms from childhood, and no braver men ever went to war. Certainly it was a test of bravery when down upon the wind came this diabolic death, while behind came waves of Germans.

Canadian Heroism. Hastily throwing troops to protect their left flank, left unprotected by the retreat of the French Colonials, the Canadians held the position with dogged determination, despite the gas, the German assault and a heavy bombardment. Four of their guns were taken, but the Canadians recaptured them with the bayonet. Their losses were terrific; in places detachments were annihilated; but they hung on through that day and night and the next day and night until help came. Seven thousand, or about one-fourth the total number of Canadians in the battle, were

CANADIAN TROOPS OFF FOR THE FRONT

killed, wounded or taken. But they had stopped the German rush. They had saved Ypres and perhaps even the Channel ports. The story of their valor went round the world.

A Violation of International Law.

The vapor that had terrorized the French Colonials was poison gas, in this first instance, chlorine gas. The use of such a weapon was strictly forbidden by international law, but in this as in many other cases the Germans cared nothing for such law. In order to prepare justification for themselves, they had issued some time before a lying report to the effect that the French were making use of poison gas. It was another instance of German "frightfulness," of the German determination to win by foul if they could not by fair means. It was only a fortnight later that they sank the *Lusitania*.

Zeppelin Raids on England.

In the same period the Germans were making a series of air raids against English cities. Late in January Zeppelins dropped bombs on English coast towns, killing and wounding a number of people. In April they raided the Tyne district and also Lowestoft and other places east of London, while an airplane dropped bombs in Kent. Finally on the night of May 31st the Zeppelins reached London, and dropped a number of bombs which killed four people and injured many others. In the first week in June there were two other raids on east coast towns, in the last of which over sixty people were killed or wounded. As the British at this time had done little to perfect their defenses against such attacks, these raids were accomplished with comparatively little danger to the assailants. However, on the 7th of June Lieutenant Reginald Warneford, a young Canadian airman, while flying over Ghent in Belgium, caught sight of a Zeppelin returning from a raid over England. Flying above it, he dropped a bomb that blew the Zeppelin up. All of the crew were killed, and unfortunately the fragments of the Zeppelin fell upon a nunnery, killing or wounding a number of the inmates. For this exploit young Warneford was given the Victoria Cross. He was soon afterward killed in an accident. A river in the Canadian northwest has since been named for him.

Defensive Measures.

In the months following there were many raids upon London and other English cities. Rapidly, however, the British improved their system of aerial defense. When word came that raiders were on their way, towns would be plunged into complete darkness in order that the raiders would not be able to see their mark. Airplanes were kept in readiness, and anti-aircraft guns were manned, and when the raiders arrived, search-lights would be turned upon them so that the gunners could see the airships. On the night of January 31, 1916, a Zeppelin was so badly injured in one of these raids that she fell into the North

Sea, and all of the crew were drowned. Two months later another Zeppelin was struck by one or more shells and fell, "like a weak bird, flopping at both ends as if they were wings," into the lower Thames. The crew were all made prisoners by a British patrol vessel.

German Pretense and Tragic Reality.

In the announcement of these raids, the Germans pretended that they were directed against British forts or other military objectives. In reality, practically all the bombs fell upon unprotected cities, and almost all the victims were helpless men, women and children. The only considerable military object realized by the raids was that they compelled the British to keep at home airplanes, guns and shells that otherwise would have been available for use in France and Belgium. The Germans hoped to terrify the British into making peace, but the raids merely served to make the British more determined to fight the war through to a successful conclusion.

The Need for Shells.

The British attack upon Neuve Chapelle, as well as other operations in the same period, brought home to Britons that the new warfare was unlike the old. Shells in numbers hitherto undreamed of were needed, and for the most part they needed to be of a type hitherto little used in war. The British War Office had made the mistake of providing shells that were mainly of the shrapnel type; that is a shell that was supposed to burst while still in air and throw out a shower of fragments and bullets. Such shells were very effective against troops in the open, but they did little injury to troops in trenches. What was needed was a shell containing a large charge of very high explosive, a shell that would fall into a trench and on exploding would blow up everything around it.

Coalition Cabinet.

This mistake regarding shells, combined with other causes, brought about a political crisis that resulted in the formation of a Coalition Cabinet. A number of prominent Conservative leaders, including Lord Curzon, Mr. Bonar Law and Mr. Balfour, were given offices. A new Ministry of Munitions was created, of which Lloyd George became the head. To the position of Chancellor of the Exchequer, vacated by Lloyd George, Mr. McKenna was appointed. At the beginning of the war Lloyd George had been bitterly hated by the aristocracy, but his management of the financial matters at the outbreak of the war had silenced their criticism. To the new position the little Welshman brought all of his unsurpassed energy and skill. Great munition factories were erected, tens of thousands of workers were employed, industry generally was speeded up, and before the year was over great progress had been made.

Lloyd George.

American Munitions.

More and more resort was had to America, and vast new orders for shells, artillery and other munitions were placed with American fac-

GEORGES CLEMENCEAU

FIELD MARSHAL EARL HAIG

tories. Owing to the conquest of a large part of industrial France, including the richest coal mines, the Germans, in a war that was largely a battle between rival steel industries, would have enjoyed a tremendous advantage, had the Allies not been able to draw upon the tremendous steel industries of the United States.

French and British Weakness.

Unfortunately, Lloyd George's efforts came too late to influence the campaign of 1915 on the Western Front. The great new British army was not yet ready for the conflict, and both British and French were inadequately supplied with shells. Consequently they were unable to make any effective diversion in favor of their hard pressed Russian Allies, and while the Teutonic legions in the east passed on from victory to victory and overran province after province, the British and French on the Western Front were unable to conquer more than a few petty positions that had already been blasted into ruin by the guns. In September, however, the French and British undertook a really serious offensive. The whole German line was heavily bombarded and ultimately attacks were delivered in Flanders, Artois and Champagne. Some successes were gained in front of Ypres and in Artois, but nothing decisive was accomplished. The main attack was delivered in Champagne. After a "drum fire" exceeding anything the world had yet known, the French infantry charged and carried two lines of German trenches on a front of over seven miles. One brigade even penetrated completely through the German defenses, but it was unsupported and was cut to pieces. The French claim to have taken 150 cannon and 25,000 unwounded prisoners, but their own losses were enormous and greatly discouraged those Allied leaders who knew the real facts. As a result of the failure of this offensive an increasing number of military critics began to predict that neither side would ever be able to break through the line of entrenchments on the Western Front, and that when the end of the war came it would find the opposing armies confronting each other in approximately the same positions that they then held.

The September Offensive.

General French Succeeded by General Haig.

During the following winter much fighting of a local nature took place on the Western Front but nothing of great significance took place. Both armies strengthened their defenses, and the soldiers along the front lines lived underground like badgers. Dugouts were constructed so deep beneath the earth that only a very heavy shell would penetrate far enough to injure the occupants. It was felt in England that Sir John French had scarcely measured up to the demands of the new warfare and in December, 1915, he was superseded by Sir Douglas Haig, who had shown his skill and resourcefulness in France on numerous occasions. In England a great campaign was carried on for

volunteers, and by the spring of 1916 Great Britain had four million men under arms. In Allied quarters it was hoped that when this great force was adequately trained it could turn the scale and enable the Allied armies to win the war.

Results of 1915.

Both sides claimed that the year 1915 had been to their advantage. On the continent of Europe, however, it was evident that the Teutons had had the upper hand. The Allied attempt upon the Dardanelles had been repelled with great loss. Teutonic armies had overrun western Russia and had killed, wounded or taken more than a million Russians. Bulgaria had entered the war on the side of the Central Powers and had enabled them to conquer Servia and Montenegro and open a passage to Constantinople. On the Western Front, at the cost of hundreds of thousands of casualties, the Allies had been able to recover only a few square miles of territory, but on the seas and beyond the Allies were predominant. In only one colony, East Africa, did a small force of Germans manage to hold out. Looking to their overwhelming preponderance in man power, the Allies, pointing to Teutonic losses, claimed that they would ultimately win the war by attrition. The British especially contended that the pressure of sea-power upon the Teutonic throat would ultimately bring the Allies victory. Neither side, it was evident, was yet near exhaustion, and it was certain that the year 1916 would witness some of the fiercest fighting in all history.

No Prospect of Peace.

After the victories of 1915 the Central Powers claimed to have won the war and seemed to be greatly surprised that their enemies were not willing to make terms. Neither side, however, as yet considered itself vanquished, and the Entente Allies laughed at the Teutonic claim. Had the war ended at this time, the Teutons unquestionably would have insisted upon cessions of territory and great financial indemnities. As the Entente Allies were still confident of winning in the end they were, of course, in no mood to make such concessions. From the beginning the Allies had insisted that there could be no peace until reparation had been made for injuries inflicted and some guarantee had been provided against future danger from German militarism. In neutral countries, and especially in the United States all sorts of suggestions for bringing the war to an end were brought forward, to say nothing of nostrums and panaceas to prevent future wars. In the United States Henry Ford, who was described by Mr. Balfour as "a manufacturer of infant perambulators," conceived the idea that he could get the armies "out of the trenches by Christmas, 1915." Encouraged by an Austrian agent named Rosika Schwimmer, he even sent a ship load of pacifists to Europe to end the conflict. Mr. Ford was fond of denying any value to history, and he was guiltless of any knowledge

Ford's "Peace Ship."

of international relations. His "peace pilgrims" quarreled on shipboard. They were not permitted to visit some of the countries at war and everywhere were greeted with derision.

Wilson's Blunder.

Throughout this period President Wilson held himself ready to act as a mediator and made occasional tentative offers to that effect. In this period he held the view that both sides would ultimately fight to the point of exhaustion and that then there could be a peace by compromise. He, in common with other neutrals who were anxious to bring about peace at this time, failed to see that a negotiated peace would still leave German militarism a menace to the whole world.

Belgian Relief.

Though the attempts of neutrals to end the war proved a failure, they were able to do something to mitigate the horrors of the conflict. Belgium especially received aid from such sources. Before the war Belgium depended in large measure for her food supply upon the outside world, and in exchange therefor she furnished manufactured articles. But practically all of Belgium fell into German hands and consequently communication with the outside world was cut off. Goods could neither be sent out nor food brought in unless some arrangement to that effect was achieved with the Entente Allies. As Germany was inadequately supplied with food for her own needs and had even confiscated some of that in Belgium it was clear that unless heroic steps were taken a large part of the Belgium population would die of starvation. To meet the situation the Commission for Relief in Belgium was organized partly through the efforts of Americans, notably Brand Whitlock, our Minister at Brussels, and Millard Shailer. Money was obtained by subscription in neutral and Allied countries, and Great Britain and France also loaned large sums to Belgium for that purpose. Up to the time that the United States entered the conflict a quarter of a billion dollars had been expended for relief. The work was done under American direction, but, contrary to general opinion in the United States, only about twenty million dollars of the total sum came from American sources. Much of this was supplied by the Rockefeller Foundation.

Herbert C. Hoover.

The head of this relief work was Herbert C. Hoover. Hoover was a graduate of Stanford University, and his profession of mining engineer had taken him to numerous countries. He served as a volunteer in repelling the Boxer attacks upon Tientsin. The outbreak of the Great War found him in Europe, where he was active in effecting the return home of about 150,000 Americans who found themselves stranded in Europe when hostilities broke out. Fortunately Hoover possessed great energy and administrative ability combined with great tact, and he managed the difficult work of relief with an ability that won him the plaudits of mankind.

SECTION IV.—VERDUN, JUTLAND, THE SOMME, AND THE ENTRANCE OF ROUMANIA.

Germans Plan Attack on Verdun.

For the campaign of 1916 the Germans again changed their plan. They decided to remain upon the defensive on the Eastern Front and again undertake an offensive against France. The place selected for their offensive was the great fortress of Verdun, which projected like a promontory into territory occupied by the Germans. Vast preparations were made, thousands of guns, millions of shells and hundreds of thousands of troops were concentrated for the great effort. The Germans made no secret of their intention to "bleed France white," and compel her retirement from the war.

The Attack.

On the 21st of February the Germans opened a bombardment that surpassed in intensity anything the world had yet witnessed. The advanced French positions were literally blasted out of the ground. When the time seemed opportune, the German infantry charged, and captured much territory and many thousands of prisoners.

French Decide to Hold Verdun.

The French had been aware that some such attack was impending but had been unable to do anything that would prevent this initial German success. As Verdun was surrounded on three sides, and was inadequately provided with railroads and road, some French strategists thought that it would be better to evacuate the place entirely. But General Joffre and the French General Staff dared not take such a step for fear of its effect upon French morale. They decided, therefore, to hold the place to the last extremity. The task of defense was entrusted to General Pètain. More troops, guns and munitions were hurried up, and the French poilus, "the bearded ones," adopted the watchword, "They shall not pass."

British Take Over French Trenches.

At the time the attack on Verdun began the British under General Haig were making preparations for an offensive in the early summer. But as yet the new British army was inadequately trained and equipped. The pressure upon the French was so great, however, that Haig offered to effect a diversion by making an earlier attack. Aware that such an attack would be premature, Joffre refused the offer, but he did consent to have the British take over about fifty miles more of trenches, thereby freeing many French troops for use around Verdun.

A Bitter Conflict.

Meanwhile the Germans had continued their attacks upon Verdun with unrelenting ferocity. The great guns would bombard a sector for hours or days or weeks, and then the infantry would advance to the attack. The French guns would roar in answer, decimating the assailants, while from cunningly concealed places of vantage the French

machine-guns would mow down the enemy. Places would be taken then re-taken repeatedly. Gradually, in spite of all resistance the Germans forged slowly forward, but their progress was measured by yards rather than miles, and the German public, which had been led to expect a quick and easy victory, was greatly disappointed.

Dead Man's Hill.

Throughout the spring and fall and into the summer, the great drive continued. The roar of the great guns was practically incessant. Forests and even hills were blasted down by the shells; thousands upon thousands of men on both sides fell in the struggle for Dead Man's Hill and other places. Early in June the Germans took Fort Vaux after a bitter struggle, and on the 23d they made a supreme effort to beat down all resistance. They took Thiaumont and a few other places. Twice in the next two days the French retook Thiaumont and twice they lost it. On July 12th the Germans reached a point within a thousand yards of Fort Souville, but they could go no farther.

German Failure.

Meanwhile great events were taking place in other fields, and finally the Germans were compelled to make use of their forces elsewhere. Hundreds of thousands had fallen on either side, and for all their efforts, the Germans had to show only a few square miles of blasted ruined territory. Throughout the conflict the French had displayed a dogged determination unsurpassed in the annals of warfare, and down through the ages the word Verdun will call up a picture of supreme heroism.

Battle of Jutland.

While the struggle for Verdun was still at its height the British and German battle fleets met for the first and last time. On May 31st the main British Grand Fleet, composed of about a score of dreadnoughts and many cruisers and destroyers, under Admiral Jellicoe, was cruising near the middle of the North Sea. About seventy miles to southward was the battle-cruiser squadron under Vice-Admiral Beatty and four swift dreadnoughts under Vice-Admiral Thomas. Shortly after three o'clock in the afternoon Beatty's scout cruiser *Galatea* and other small craft came in contact with similar German craft, and presently Beatty discovered that he was in the presence of the German battle-cruiser squadron, composed of five battle-cruisers and other smaller vessels under Vice-Admiral von Hipper.

British Disasters.

The Germans turned southward with the British in pursuit and a running fight at long range took place. German shells penetrated to the magazines of the *Indefatigable* and *Queen Mary*, and both blew up and then disappeared, with the loss of more than a thousand men. The Germans now had five battle-cruisers to Beatty's four, but the four dreadnoughts under Thomas joined in the conflict and inflicted heavy damage upon the retiring German ships.

erman lation.

Presently fresh German ships came in sight, and soon it became apparent to the British that they were in contact with the main German High Seas Fleet under Admiral Von Scheer. The British ships now fled in turn, with the Germans in hot pursuit. The news of the destruction of the two British battle-cruisers had been spread among the German crews, and great rejoicing followed. It was, in fact, the greatest moment that the German navy was to know. In high hopes Beatty sent by wireless to Jellicoe the news of what was happening, and Beatty's mighty fleet steamed southward as fast as steam could drive it. Thanks to greater speed, Beatty's and Thomas' ships were able to choose their distance and managed to inflict heavy damage upon some of the pursuing vessels. The giant battle-cruiser, *Luetzow*, of 28,000 tons, Von Hipper's flagship, was so badly injured that Von Hipper transferred his flag to the *Moltke*, and ultimately the *Luetzow* sank.

e Main Fleets Clash.

About six o'clock Beatty's vessels came in sight of Jellicoe's Grand Fleet. Shortly afterwards the third British battle-cruiser squadron under Rear-Admiral Hood advanced to within 8,000 yards of some of the German dreadnoughts and received fearful punishment. Hood's flagship, the *Invincible*, of 17,250 tons, and other smaller vessels were sunk. Now, however, the mighty dreadnoughts of the Grand Fleet came into action and with their heavy guns hurled a hurricane of projectiles against the German ships. Up to this time the Germans had had the advantage, and the German sailors had had high hopes that, despite the great odds, they could defeat the British. But the storm of shells was so appalling that, as a German naval officer admitted after the war was over, the German sailors realized that their hope was a vain one. In desperation Admiral Von Scheer had his foremost vessels discharge torpedoes at long range against the enemy, and also sent forward many destroyers on the same errand. The British destroyers, however, met the German destroyers midway and prevented them from carrying home their attack upon the British ships.

Night nds the Main Battle.

The German maneuver succeeded in winning some desperately needed time. Darkness came on very opportunely, and the main battle ceased. In the night there was continuous fighting, especially between the smaller craft. Jellicoe placed his fleet, as he supposed, between the Germans and their home ports, but in the darkness the Germans made good their escape.

The Germans claimed a great victory. The British admitted having lost three battle-cruisers, three armored cruisers and eight destroyers, having a total tonnage of 114,100. The Germans ultimately admitted having lost five destroyers, four light cruisers, the old battleship *Pommern* and the battle-cruiser *Luetzow*, with a total tonnage of 63,015.

ADMIRAL SIR DAVID BEATTY

ADMIRAL JOHN JELLICOE

In ships sunk the Germans undoubtedly had the advantage, but in addition to those that actually went down, several more of their vessels were so badly damaged that months were required to put them into condition for active service. Although the Germans claimed the victory, the British retained control of the high seas, and the German fleet never again ventured to give battle.

Jellicoe's Defense.

Admiral Jellicoe was severely criticized for permitting the German fleet to escape. In defense he pleaded that the fate of the British Empire would have been sealed had his fleet been destroyed and that prudence dictated that he should not take undue risks in the night time. The German destroyers were, he pointed out, as numerous as his own, and the German searchlights were better. He expected to renew the action in the morning but was disappointed.

A Great Opportunity Lost.

There can be no question that the British lost a great opportunity and that their prestige suffered somewhat as a result of the battle. Had they been able to destroy the German fleet, it would no doubt have shortened the war. As it was, that fleet remained in being and continued to be a menace until the end of the conflict, although it never again ventured to give battle.

German Advantages.

The disparity in losses has been attributed to a number of causes. The German ships for the most part had been built for defensive purposes; comfort for the officers and crews and coal capacity had been sacrificed for thickness of armor. Frequently the British shells exploded before penetrating and consequently did little or no damage; the German shells were equipped with a delay-action fuse that insured the shell bursting only after it had entered the ship or had exhausted its force. The German gunners had practiced firing at long ranges, and succeeded in making many hits. In the case of the *Indefatigable* and *Queen Mary* the shells appear to have plunged downward through the thinly protected decks into the interior of the vessel, where the explosion set off the magazine. In this engagement and throughout the war it was noticeable that the German vessels were able to withstand a great amount of punishment before sinking.

This battle of Horn Reef, as it is known to the Germans, or of Jutland as the British prefer to call it, was not fought to a finish, yet it was the mightiest naval conflict of all time. Combined the ships engaged in it could have sunk all the other warships ever constructed. It has been estimated that the total cost of the battle, including shells expended and ships lost or damaged, exceeded $200,000,000, which was more than the cost to us of the Revolutionary War.

Kitchener Drowned.

Hardly had the echoes of the battle died down when the world was startled by a new catastrophe. It had been decided that Earl Kitche-

ner, British Secretary of State for War, should go to Russia to participate in a war council. On the 7th of June in northern Scotland he went on board the old cruiser *Hampshire*, which was to carry him round North Cape and through the Arctic and White Seas to Archangel. About eight o'clock that evening off one of the Orkneys the *Hampshire* struck a German mine and in a few minutes went down. The sea was running very high, and all but eleven men were lost. Kitchener's body was never found. As generally happens under such circumstances, stories were told to the effect that he was still alive. It was said that he was even commanding the Russian army. Kitchener had made mistakes in his management of the war; in some respects he had not measured up to the needs of the situation. Trench warfare especially found him puzzled as to what should be done. But he had raised, equipped and trained a great new British army that was soon to go into action. That army, whose deeds we shall narrate in future pages, was his most worthy monument.

ustrians Attack talians.

In their plans for 1916 the Central Powers had arranged not only to assail France but also to conduct an offensive against Italy. In the early spring of that year the Hapsburg government massed hundreds of thousands of men and about two thousand cannon in the region of the Adige and Brenta Rivers. In the middle of May the great blow fell. The Italians resisted courageously, but their fortifications were levelled by bombardments, and they were driven back. On the 18th the Austrians forced their way over the border into Italy. By the end the month the Austrians claimed to have captured over thirty thousand prisoners and more than two hundred cannon. The situation from the Italian point of view was becoming very grave, for if the Austrians were able to continue their advance they would be able to cut off the main Italian force operating in the region of the Isonzo.

Russian ctivities.

But repeatedly Russia, sometimes at bitter expense to herself, had come to the rescue of her hard-pressed western Allies. The Russian armies had suffered enormous losses in the preceding year, but they still remained formidable. As we have already seen, they won some successes in the autumn of 1915. In March, 1916, they attacked heavily against the Teutonic lines between the Baltic Sea and the Pinsk Marshes but achieved little. Since that time they had been preparing for an offensive in Volhynia and Galicia. The leader in this offensive was General Brussilov, probably the ablest Russian general who came to the front during the war.

Great Russian Victory.

The situation was favorable for such an attack. The Austrians had weakened their eastern forces in order to obtain men, guns and munitions for their drive against the Italians. On June 2d and 3d the

Russian artillery heavily bombarded the Austrian positions. On the 4th the Russian guns suddenly ceased firing. The Austrians interpreted this to mean that the infantry attack was about to begin. The troops came out of the dugouts and other protected places, while the reserves hurried up to the front lines in order to meet the expected attack. Then the Russian guns suddenly re-opened a terrific fire, decimating the unprotected Austrians and inflicting great losses. Presently the guns ceased once more, and this time the Muscovites really moved forward. The troops attacked with great dash and determination, broke through the Austrian lines in many places and in two days captured 25,000 prisoners and much war booty. In less than a week they re-captured the great fortresses of Lutsk and Dubno, and the number of prisoners mounted to more than 100,000.

Drive Checked.

To meet this new danger the Austrians were compelled to transfer great forces from the Italian front and to give up the offensive in that region. The Germans also sent re-inforcements and tried to effect a diversion by assailing the Russian lines in the north, but the Germans themselves had weakened their Eastern Front in order to carry on the attack against Verdun. For weeks the Russian drive moved slowly forward through Galicia and deep into Bukowina. In less than a month the Russians had taken over 200,000 prisoners and were threatening Lemberg and Kovel. Fresh German forces were thrown into the conflict, while even Bulgarians and Turks were brought to the aid of Austria. For many weeks some of the bloodiest fighting of the war took place in front of Kovel. Ultimately the Teutons managed to retain this place and Lemberg, but there could be no question that Brussilov's drive was one of the outstanding successes of the war.

British Preparations.

The Russian offensive helped to relieve the German pressure against Verdun. Meanwhile the British were making final preparations for their first really great offensive. The place selected for the drive was the region of the River Somme. Roads and railroads were built, water lines were laid, immense stocks of munitions were brought up, hospitals were erected, and artillery and cannon in great numbers were concentrated before the sector selected for attack. The Germans had held the line in this region for almost two years and had made use of trenches, dugouts, bomb-proof shelters and wire entanglements to make their positions immensely strong.

Preliminaries.

Meanwhile British airplanes carefully studied the German lines and took many photographs of the German positions. Frequently raids were made at night to capture prisoners and to obtain information. These raids were an innovation introduced by the Canadians, and by training they were especially fitted to succeed in such warfare. For

weeks the British heavily bombarded the German lines, affecting considerable destruction and also giving needed training to inexperienced gunners. On June 24th a much heavier bombardment was opened and during the next few days, when the wind proved favorable, gas was discharged against the German trenches. On the morning of July 1st the bombardment was especially heavy, then at 7:30 A. M. the British troops went over the top with a yell. Further southward a considerable French force also participated in the movement.

Hard Going.

In places where the British artillery fire was especially effective or where the German works were weak, the British and French were able to effect a lodgment in the German positions with comparative ease. But the counter-barrage from the German artillery was heavy all along the line, and in some places German machine-guns and gunners had been kept in deep dugouts beneath the earth and were brought up at the time that the British attack began. Even one machine-gun sometimes was sufficient to hold up the advance of thousands. British losses were all the heavier because to a considerable extent both officers and men were insufficiently trained. Nevertheless, the British were able to capture many German positions and by the 6th of July had taken about 6,000 prisoners. In their sector the French, being better trained, were able to make greater progress at slighter cost and in ten days took 12,000 prisoners and nearly a hundred guns.

Battle of the Somme.

Thus began the great "push" known in history as the battle of the Somme. The British and French consolidated the positions won and began a new bombardment of German positions beyond. The Germans brought up heavy re-inforcements and massed great numbers of guns in front of the points of attack. At intervals, when an objective had been subjected to heavy shell fire, the Allied infantry would move forward and attempt to occupy it. Sometimes they would succeed, sometimes they would be thrown back with heavy loss. When the position was taken, the Germans would often counter-attack and retake it, only to be thrown out again. Some positions were taken and re-taken many times before they finally remained in Allied hands. The losses on both sides were tremendous. Both sides fed hundreds of thousands into the fiery furnace. When a division had endured all that it could stand, it would be taken out, given a rest, filled with new men up to its normal number and then, when its morale was sufficiently restored, it would be sent again into the inferno of battle. The bombardment exceeded in intensity even the conflict at Verdun. In the air, as well as on the earth, a bitter battle was waged for control, and hundreds of fights took place above the blood-stained shell-shattered earth. Allied airplanes even participated in the assaults by flying close to earth and turning their machine-guns upon the Germans in their trenches.

FRENCH TROOPS EVACUATING DORTMUND

ENGLISH GUNNERS IN ACTION

Alan Seegar.

The French and British forces included men from the mother countries and also from the various colonies belonging to each. Many volunteers from neutral countries engaged in the battle. A considerable proportion of the Canadian soldiers were men born in the United States. In the French Foreign Legion also were many Americans, engaged in returning the visit of La Fayette. Among these the most notable was Alan Seegar, a young poet. Seegar lost his life in a charge on July 4th, but he left behind him two immortal poems, "I Have a Rendezvous with Death," and "Ode to the Memory of American Volunteers Fallen in France."

Offensive vs. Defensive Warfare.

Through the summer and until the beginning of winter the great drive continued. Gradually the British forged slowly forward, though at tremendous cost. On the 15th of September a new weapon was introduced into the conflict. It was but natural that the difficulties involved in attacking the powerful fortifications that had been developed should lead military men to desire some device that would enable them to make offensive operations possible at smaller cost in blood. Throughout the history of warfare there has been an unending struggle between defense and offense. In naval affairs, for example, some expert would evolve armor plate impenetrable to existing shells. Then another expert would invent an improved armor-piercing shell that would penetrate the armor. Then the first expert or some other expert would invent improved armor, and the race would go merrily on. In the present war defense was for the time being ahead in the race. Trenches, machine-guns and other devices had made the problem of offense extremely difficult. As has been said before, some military experts were saying that on the Western Front neither side would be able to break through.

The Tank.

In the attempt to find some method of protecting advancing troops from rifle and machine-gun fire, Colonel Swinton and other British officers ultimately evolved what came to be known as the tank. Armored automobiles had been used to a certain extent from the beginning of the war, but they were effective only on roads or level ground and were easily stopped by obstacles and of course could not cross trenches. The tank consisted of an armored car mounted upon caterpillar tractors, an American invention. The armor plate was thick enough to stop a rifle bullet, though of course not effective against a shell. The making of the new device had been surrounded with great secrecy, and the name "tank" had been selected because it gave no suggestion of the purpose of the new weapon. The first tanks were of two types:

Early Types.

one, called the "male," carried two quick-firing guns that discharged a small shell; the other, the "female," was armed only with machine-

guns. The tanks looked very ungainly, and this appearance was heightened by the fact that they were weirdly camouflaged with different colors of paint. When the soldiers first beheld them they were moved to hearty laughter. One war correspondent declared that "the tank resembles an armadillo, a caterpillar, a diplodocus, a motor car and a traveling circus."

German Astonishment.

On the 15th of September after a heavy preliminary bombardment, the tanks and infantry moved forward. The objectives were German positions on high ground on either side of Thiepval. The tanks moved somewhat in advance of the infantry in order to deal with surviving machine-guns. When the Allied barrage had lifted, rifle-men and machine-gunners had hurried up from their dugouts to repel the assault. The appearance of these strange antediluvian monsters waddling forward over all obstacles, including trenches, struck terror into their hearts, especially after they discovered that their bullets battered against the armor plate of the tanks with scarcely more effectiveness than rain striking a tin roof. As the German artillery near the front lines had been mostly destroyed, the tanks suffered comparatively little from shell fire. A tank would stop astride a trench filled with soldiers and would shoot them down with its machine-guns. When other methods against the German machine-gun failed, the tanks would simply move over the guns. Many curious things happened. At one place a tank pushed over a wall that barred its way. Instances occurred in which German soldiers charged the tanks, beat against them with the butts of their rifles, even climbed on top of them, but to no avail. One German officer attempted to open the door of a tank, only to be seized by the collar and hauled within.

Future Importance.

The tanks had stood the test very satisfactorily, and as the war progressed they played an increasingly important part, especially in the final Allied offensive of 1918. By that time their structure had been greatly improved, and they were less unwieldy than those first constructed. A feature of the first tanks was a pair of wheels at the rear end for guiding purposes, but ultimately it was found that these were unnecessary and they were left off the later models. It is not improbable that if the Allies had deferred their use until several hundred were available they might have affected a complete breakthrough and forced the Germans out of France and Belgium. But there was much scepticism regarding their practicability, and this scepticism could only be dissipated by a successful test.

End of the Drive.

In the weeks that followed the British gradually forged forward against bitter resistance. As winter drew near, however, rainy weather transformed the region into a sea of mud, and presently the offensive

had to be suspended. A deep salient had been driven into the German lines but a breakthrough, which might have been achieved had fair weather held out, had not been made. The losses on both sides had been tremendous, amounting in killed, wounded and captured to perhaps a million men. The British losses alone were probably 400,000; those of France perhaps half as many. The Allies had taken over 70,000 Germans and more than 300 cannon. Both sides claimed the victory. The Allies based their claim largely upon the fact that the German losses were heavy and that the German ranks could not be filled so readily as with the Allies.

Attrition.

In British military circles increasing confidence was placed upon this possibility of winning the war by attrition. Allied man power was so much greater than that of the Central Powers that believers in this theory held that time would come that the armies of the Central Powers would be so depleted that they would have to give up the struggle. Arithmetically this theory was sound, but it might be upset by unexpected developments, and it, of course, involved a horribly bloody struggle. One wit declared that the theory meant that a time would come when all the Germans had been killed and there would still be left *one* Englishman.

The campaign of 1916 severely strained the resources of the Central Powers. Things did not go so well for them as in 1915. The great attack upon Verdun failed at heavy cost and that against the Italians had to be suspended. The Russians, notwithstanding their defeats of 1915, had confounded Teutonic predictions by starting an offensive that was halted only after great loss had been sustained in men and territory. In July there had begun the great British offensive on the Somme in which hundreds of thousands of Germans had been killed, wounded or taken.

Furthermore, the internal situation in the Central Powers was growing worse. The Allied blockade had cut off most of the trade with the outer world with a resultant economic loss. It had been necessary to eke out the food produced in the Central Powers with large importations from abroad and now very little could be brought in. There was serious shortage of food, especially of meats and fats. The staple articles of food had long been taken over by the government, and a system of food cards had been established whereby it was possible to obtain only a limited amount of such an article. Luxuries were not so controlled, and it was possible for people of wealth to obtain these luxuries, though at very high prices. The lack of fat was especially distressing, since a certain amount of fat is necessary for the maintenance of health. Various substitutes were used for tea and coffee.

Substitutes.

A great part of the population felt constantly hungry, and fat people were no more seen in a land notable for fatness. The supply of gasoline, rubber, copper and many other articles was inadequate. Some copper was obtained by gathering up household utensils and door knobs made of that article, while copper roofs were taken off of even the churches. A system of coil springs was invented for use on wheels of automobiles. Cotton, wool and flax were so scarce that when old clothes wore out they were in part supplanted by garments made of paper. Even grave clothes were made of paper.

Merchant Submarines.

Since the ordinary merchant vessels could not traverse the high seas without being captured, the Germans tried the experiment of merchant submarines. One such vessel, the *Deutchsland*, made two trips to America, one to Baltimore and the other to New London, bringing over cargoes of dye-stuffs and other articles and taking back rubber, nickel and copper. On her return from the second trip she collided with a tug boat and sank it, and sustained injuries that compelled her to put back to New London for repairs, but ultimately she was able to reach Germany. Another such vessel, the *Bremen*, started for America but failed to get through the war zone. The return of the *Deutchsland* to Germany was greeted with great rejoicing, special editions of newspapers being issued to announce the fact, while flags were flown and bands played. The Teutons hoped that this was the beginning of the building up of an important trade, but this hope proved delusive. Submarines of the *Deutchsland* type were too small to carry very considerable cargoes; besides submarines were so badly needed for use in warfare that it was impossible to spare any considerable number for purposes of trade.

German Gloom.

Germany was, in truth, becoming "the land of deepening shadow." Gloom settled down upon the people, and by mid-summer of 1916 it would perhaps have required only a great defeat that could not be explained away to have brought about a collapse.

Roumania Enters the War.

Late in August Roumania at last cast aside her neutrality and entered the war on the side of the Entente. In Allied circles it was hoped that she would be able to strike a blow that would break the deadlock and bring an end to the war. Roumanian troops forced their way through the Carpathian passes and overran a considerable part of Transylvania. It seemed possible that they might compel the retreat of the Austro-Hungarian forces operating against the Russian forces in Galicia. But it was not to be. Roumania had entered the war prematurely before her army was adequately supplied with artillery and munitions. Coöperation with the Russian armies and with the Allied forces based on Salonica had not been arranged.

Roumanian Defeats.

The Central Powers hastily gathered great forces and General von Falkenhayn, who had just been succeeded as Chief of Staff by von Hindenburg, led strong Teutonic forces against the invaders of Transylvania; while General von Mackensen, with a heterogeneous army that included Bulgarians and Turks, drove the Roumanians out of the Dobrudja and forced his way over the Danube. The Roumanians in Transylvania proved no match for the veteran Teutonic troops, who were better supplied with machine-guns, artillery and airplanes. Soon the Roumanians were driven out of Transylvania through the Carpathian passes into their own country.

Most of Roumania Conquered.

It was clear that Roumania was threatened with the fate that the previous year had befallen Servia and Montenegro. In Allied councils there was again indecision and procrastination. Some Russian troops, but not enough, were sent to aid the Roumanians. The great Allied armies about Salonica should have moved northward, but they did nothing of consequence. The armies of Von Falkenhayn and Von Mackensen swarmed into Roumania from the north, the west and the south. Bucharest fell to the invaders and soon over half of the country had been conquered. Now, however, powerful Russian re-inforcements arrived and the invaders were halted along a line running along the lower Sereth River and thence northwestward to the Carpathian mountains.

Teutonic Rejoicings.

The Roumanian defeat revived the drooping spirits of the people of the Central Powers and depressed those of the Allies. Up to that time there had been little during the year to which the Teutonic War Lords could point with pride. Now they magnified the success in Roumania into the decisive event of the war. The defeat of Roumania had warded off a great danger and had enabled the Central Powers to conquer a country from which they could draw supplies of grain and gasoline, although in their retreat the Allies had so far as possible destroyed the granaries and crops, the oil tanks and oil wells. Again Allied mismanagement had been responsible for the loss of a great opportunity.

The "Immortal Sisters."

On the 24th of October and the 15th of December, 1916, the French carried out two limited offensives by which they recaptured nearly all the ground won by the Germans in their drive against Verdun, together with more than 15,000 prisoners and scores of cannon. These two victories were called by the French the "Immortal Sisters," and they were made possible by the use of a new method of attack, which had been evolved by General Nivelle. The main feature of this method was a careful synchronizing of artillery fire and infantry attack. The enemy's positions that were to be taken were first subjected to a heavy

bombardment that would destroy his artillery, kill many of the defenders, and force the remainder to take refuge in underground shelters. Previously when the infantry attacked, the artillery would cease firing upon the enemy's positions that were to be assaulted, and this respite from shell-fire would give the defenders an opportunity to climb out of their dugouts and oppose the attack with hand-grenades and rifle and machine-gun fire. Under the new method when the moment came for the infantry to advance, the guns would be slightly elevated so that the barrage of shells would continue falling only a short distance ahead of the charging troops. A schedule for the assault would be made out in advance. At a given time the infantry must be at a given objective and must not be beyond it, otherwise they would be exposed to their own shells. Meanwhile the gunners at the proper intervals would continue elevating the guns in such a manner that a creeping barrage of shells would always be falling just a little in front of their own advancing troops. This method, of course, necessitated the greatest care and was practical only in a highly trained force.

New Methods.

Nivelle Succeeds Joffre.

The two victories above mentioned were achieved at such slight loss to the French that a hope developed that the same method employed on a larger scale would enable the Allies next year to break through the German lines and drive the invader from Belgium and France. General Nivelle to whom chief credit for the victories was given, soon after succeeded Joffre as Commander-in-Chief of the French forces. Joffre retired willingly, for the strain upon him had been very great and he had repeatedly expressed the wish that some younger man might take his place. Though the retiring general had not been able to evolve a method for breaking through the German lines, he will always be remembered as the victor of the Marne.

Governmental Changes.

In France and Great Britain dissatisfaction with the conduct of the war brought about changes in the heads of the government. In France a war council of five was created, and the Briand Cabinet gave place to one headed by Alexander Ribot. In Great Britain an increasing number of people had come to believe that Asquith was too easy-going to be Premier in such a crisis and that a man of greater energy was needed. Lord Northcliffe, owner of the *Times* and the *Daily Mail*, began a campaign against the existing cabinet and advocated that Lloyd George should be elevated to the position of Premier. As First Lord of the Treasury, Minister of Munitions and Secretary of State for War, the little Welshman had displayed wonderful energy and ability and had won the confidence of many former enemies. Lloyd George had long been dissatisfied with the management of affairs and the Cabinet's policy of procrastination in important crises, but he had been

Asquith Overthrown.

on friendly terms with Asquith, who had always been to him a kindly and indulgent chief. Finally his sense of public duty caused him to combine with Lord Northcliffe, Bonar Law and others to bring about a political crisis that resulted in the resignation of the Asquith Ministry. By so doing he struck the Liberal party a blow from which it has not yet recovered.

Lloyd George Premier.

A new ministry was then formed under the leadership of Lloyd George. Its chief political strength came from his old enemies, the Conservatives, but it included some Liberals and Labor leaders, and Lloyd George invited into it some of the great British captains of industry. Among these were Sir Albert Stanley, head of the London subway system, and Baron Rhondda, a great coal magnate. Viscount Grey was succeeded by Arthur Balfour as Foreign Secretary; Lord Derby and Sir Edward Carson became Minister of War and First Lord of the Admiralty respectively. A new War Council was created, composed of Lloyd George, Bonar Law, Lord Curzon, Lord Milner and Arthur Henderson. A new energy at once began to be perceptible in British affairs.

Death of Francis Joseph.

On November 21, 1916, Francis Joseph, Emperor of Austria-Hungary, died in his castle at Schönbrunn. He was eighty-six years old and had reigned for sixty-eight years. He had come to the throne in the midst of the revolution of 1848; he had witnessed the loss of the Italian provinces; many domestic sorrows had come to him, for his brother Maximillian had been shot to death in Mexico, his wife had been assassinated by an anarchist, his son had lost his life under circumstances that have never been fully explained, and the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir apparent, had been killed at Sarajevo; and now the aged Kaiser passed away amid the tumult of a war that was to dethrone his ancient house and break up the empire that house had created. He was succeeded by his grandnephew Archduke Charles Francis Joseph, younger brother of Francis Ferdinand. Charles was not yet thirty years old and had married five years before Princess Zita of the Bourbon House of Parma.

Emperor Charles.

SECTION V.—ENTRANCE OF THE UNITED STATES AND THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION.

Peace Proposals.

On December 12, 1916, the Central Powers suddenly announced a willingness to enter into peace negotiations. They referred to their tremendous successes, said that a continuance of the war could only result in their victory, and disclaimed responsibility for future bloodshed. In some quarters it was asserted that this peace proposal was rendered

necessary by the state of opinion among the people of the Central Powers. It was suggested also that the War Lords believed that if delegates from the Entente nations were sent to a peace council the war wearied people in the Allied states would never consent to a continuance of the war, and the Central Powers would be able to take advantage of their possession of conquered territory to obtain great advantages. Even though only one of the Allies should be detached by this peace maneuver, it would be a great advantage. It is now known, as many believed then, that the Central Powers in making this proposal had in mind furnishing justification for the renewal of their policy of "frightfulness" upon the high seas. In the proposal the Central Powers said nothing as to what the terms should be, but it was known that they would consider themselves victors and would expect great concessions.

Wilson's "Peace Soundings."

Six days later President Wilson issued an appeal calling upon the belligerents to avow their "respective views upon which the war might be concluded." He disclaimed offering mediation and said that he was merely proposing peace "soundings." Secretary of State Lansing explained that this note was sent out because we were "drawing near the verge of war ourselves." This announcement created great excitement and a panic in the stock market, nor was the public reassured by a second statement.

Lloyd George's Speech.

Late in December the Central Powers sent a reply to the President's invitation, but they named no definite terms of peace and merely reiterated their proposal for a peace conference. In reply to the first proposal Lloyd George in his first speech in the House of Commons as Prime Minister had said that "to enter on the invitation of Germany, proclaiming herself victorious, without any knowledge of the proposals she intends to make, into a conference, is putting our heads into a noose with the rope end in the hands of the Germans." As to the purposes of Great Britain, he quoted the words of Abraham Lincoln: "'We accepted the war for an object, a worthy object. The war will end when that object is attained. Under God, I hope it will never end until that time.'" The formal reply of the Entente Allies was given on January 11, 1917. It demanded the evacuation and restoration of invaded territories and the expulsion of Turkey from Europe. In a separate reply Belgium recalled that she had been forced into the war, that her territory had been devastated, her industries ruined, her citizens killed or reduced to servitude. Though desiring an end to the war, "she could only accept a peace which would assure her safety, as well as equitable reparation, security and guarantees for the future."

United States Enters the War.

For many months German shipyards had been kept busy building submarines with which to renew unlimited warfare against merchantmen. On the 31st of January the War Lords suddenly announced that such warfare would be begun at midnight. As related in the preceding volume, their course in this matter caused the United States to break relations with Germany and in April to enter the war.

Allied Commissions.

The entrance of the United States into the war was soon followed by visits of representatives from the various Allied states. Those of the French and British envoys attracted most attention. The French delegation included M. Viviani, a former Premier, M. Chambrun, a descendant of La Fayette, and Marshal Joffre. The most notable member of the British commission was Foreign Secretary Balfour. These commissions visited Washington and numerous other cities, and everywhere were greeted with great enthusiasm.

Visits to Congress.

On May 4th for the first time in American history, a British official, Mr. Balfour, addressed the House of Representatives, and for the first time in our history, a President of the United States sat in the gallery to listen to his address. Three days before the French delegation by invitation had visited the Senate, and M. Viviani who was considered the most eloquent of the French orators made an address in French. The cry "Joffre! Joffre! Joffre!" was then raised, and the demand was so persistent that the victor of the Marne was forced to say: "I do not speak English." Then he cried out "*Vivent les Etats-Unis!*" It has been remarked that this was probably the shortest speech ever made in that home of unlimited debate. At Chicago he was induced to make for him a long speech of almost two hundred words. Holding in one hand the Stars and Stripes and in the other the Tricolor, he said as he held them together: "I am glad to join the flag of many battles to the flag that has never known defeat." All the various delegations were recipients of gifts testifying to the esteem in which they were held by Americans. To General Joffre, for example, was given a miniature in solid gold of the Statue of Liberty mounted upon a silver base, bought with money raised by public subscription.

Visit to Mount Vernon.

Perhaps the most interesting of all the ceremonies took place on April 30th when the British and French commissions visited Mount Vernon and the tomb of Washington. M. Viviani delivered a short address in which he referred to the presence of Chambrun, the descendant of La Fayette, and paid an eloquent tribute to the private soldiers who, "born to live in happiness, in the tranquil pursuit of their labors, in the enjoyment of all human affections, went into battle with virile cheerfulness and gave themselves up, not to death alone, but to the eternal silence that closes over those whose sacrifice remains

unnamed, in the full knowledge that save for those who loved them their names would disappear with their bodies." Mr. Balfour, a tall kindly figure, next spoke a few fitting words. Two French officers handed Marshal Joffre a bronze wreath, which he carried into the tomb and laid on the stone coffin. Then Mr. Balfour deposited there a wreath of lilies and oak leaves tied with the colors of the three Allied nations. It bore this inscription: "Dedicated by the British mission to the immortal memory of George Washington, soldier, statesman, patriot, who would have rejoiced to see the country of which he was by birth a citizen and the country which his genius called into existence, fighting side by side to save mankind from a military despotism."

American Unpreparedness.

For a time many people, including some in high positions, thought it probable that Americans would not do much fighting. But the destruction of ships effected by the German submarines and the revolution in Russia rendered it desirable that we should be prepared to do our part. Although for more than two years there had been much talk of "preparedness," very little of a practical nature had been done. Two months after we broke relations with Germany our regular army numbered only 128,000, and many of these had been recently enlisted. The National Guard numbered only about 80,000 men. Much of the Guard and of the regular army had seen service along the Mexican border, but the War Department had made no effort to train either officers or men in the new methods of warfare. In fact, Secretary of War Baker said that he thanked God that we were unprepared. We had about 600,000 Springfield rifles of the new models but very little machinery for turning out more, and in consequence we ultimately supplied many of our soldiers with a British model rifle that had been rechambered to carry the Springfield cartridge. We had only a few machine-guns, very few motor trucks, no airplanes fit for service in war and no really up-to-date field artillery. The War Department had been asleep on the job and had not even made plans as to what types of motor trucks, airplanes, machine-guns and artillery we should use. Many months were spent in experimenting and planning. Fortunately the navy, although in recent years it had become much weaker than that of Germany, was in better condition than the army. It contained some excellent vessels and many well-trained officers and men, but it was much hampered by being headed by a narrow-visioned secretary. In many minds the delusion existed that American inventors would speedily evolve devices that would win the war. However, no new American invention played any considerable part in winning the war. The depth-bomb, the tank and the paravene were all produced by our supposedly less nimble-witted cousins, the British. Fortunately for us we could make our preparations under the protection of our Allies.

The Navy.

ADMIRAL ALFRED VON TIRPITZ

MAJOR GENERAL R. E. BULLARD

Conscription Act.

Three weeks after the United States entered the war Congress appropriated seven billion dollars and authorized the making of loans to our allies in the conflict. A Conscription Act was passed in May after considerable opposition. Under this act all men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty-one years were obliged to register, and the limits were afterwards broadened to include all men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five. The total number registered exceeded twenty-four millions. Exemptions were granted to those engaged in war work and to those who were the sole support of their families. Over four million men were ultimately enlisted in the army and navy. To supply officers, training camps were established of the kind created by General Leonard Wood at Platsburg in 1915. About 96,000 officers received training in these camps. Great Britain and France also furnished officers to aid in training our armies. The Conscription Act authorized the President to accept the services of four divisions of volunteers, but as this enterprise had been fathered by Colonel Roosevelt, the President and Secretary of War Baker declined to make use of these forces.

The Need of Merchant Ships.

During the spring of 1917 the German submarine warfare was so successful that it seemed not impossible that the Germans would be able to sweep the seas and win the war. In a single week in April they sank nearly fifty vessels of more than 1600 tons each besides a still larger number of smaller ones. The world's shipping had already been depleted, and there was a shortage of freight carrying vessels. It was clear that it was important that we should construct new vessels as rapidly as possible. Fortunately we were able to seize over 600,000 tons of German merchant shipping in our ports. These vessels had been badly damaged by their crews but were repaired in a surprisingly short time. The *Vaterland*, which was the biggest ship afloat, was renamed the *Leviathan*, while others were named after Steuben, Schurz, Sigel, and other Germans who had played honorable parts in American history. After Austria-Hungary broke off diplomatic relations with us on April 8, 1917, we were able to take over fourteen Austrian ships having a tonnage of 67,000. In September, 1916, Congress had created a Shipping Board of five members, and after we entered the war this board organized an Emergency Fleet Corporation, which was financed by the Government. A vast program of new construction was begun, but for a long time the concrete results were disappointing. Ultimately, however, vessels were constructed with great rapidity. Against the wishes of General Goethals, who for a time was manager of the Emergency Fleet Corporation, a great number of wooden ships were built. These proved to be a bad failure, and a few years after the war more

than two hundred were sold at public auction for about the original price of one.

Vice-Admiral Sims.

Some people seemed to think that the way to meet the submarine menace was merely to build ships faster than the submarines could sink them. Others realized that while it was important to build ships it was even more important to fight the submarines. Shortly before we declared war Vice-Admiral Sims had been sent to England to coöperate between our navy and those of our prospective Allies. Sims was a very talented officer who had been responsible for great improvements in the American navy, especially in gunnery. Like General Pershing, who commanded our troops on land, he had been given an opportunity to win prominence by President Roosevelt. The work of patroling the Atlantic was soon taken over by our ships, and in May, 1917, a number of destroyers reached Queenstown to aid in anti-submarine work. Admiral Sims urged that a large part of our navy should be speedily concentrated in the war zone for this purpose. But for many months the Secretary of the Navy refused to follow his suggestions. After the war Admiral Sims charged that the war had been greatly prolonged by this blunder.

War Legislation.

Many sweeping war measures including a Food and Fuel Act and an Espionage Act, a War Risk Insurance Act and a Daylight-Saving Act were passed. Many new taxes were imposed and some old ones were increased. Certificates of indebtedness, war saving certificates, commonly known as thrift stamps, and government bonds were issued. Four Liberty Loans were floated before hostilities ceased and a Victory Loan in 1919 after the Armistice was signed. For the fourth Liberty Loan in the fall of 1918, there were over twenty-one million subscribers for a total of $6,989,947,000, the greatest financial operation in the history of mankind.

Mismanagement.

During the winter of 1917-'18 our war preparations moved so slowly that there were bitter criticisms of the War Department and of President Wilson. Senate investigations conducted by members of the President's own party revealed many shortcomings. Among Republican members of Congress a plan developed to create a War Cabinet, to be headed by Colonel Roosevelt to direct war activities. The plan had some Democratic support but failed to pass. Ultimately, however, President Wilson realized that something must be done and brought about the passage of the Overman Act re-organizing our war activities. Among the most disappointing features was the airplane situation. Early in the war Congress voted $640,000,000 for the air service and subsequently appropriated further sums. It was predicted that by the spring of 1917 American planes would darken the skies along the

ADMIRAL WILLIAM S. SIMS

Airplane Scandal.

Western Front, but the War Department at the beginning of the war had no plans for types of planes and set inventors to evolving a "Liberty Motor." It was not until near the end of the war that this motor was finally perfected after many delays. In the end nearly all the aircraft used by American flyers at the front came from French sources. We were able ultimately to supply some observation and bombing planes. Fortunately the training of American aviators proved more successful. Over 5,000 pilots and observers were sent overseas and a considerable number saw active service.

Food Campaign.

At the time that the United States entered the war the food reserve of the whole world was very low. It was important that we should be able to furnish our allies with larger supplies of food, and campaigns for that purpose were launched. A great campaign that was partly volunteer, partly legislative, was carried through to save such things as fat, flour, meat and sugar. Another campaign was conducted to encourage greater production of food articles. In order to stimulate the production of wheat, a minimum price of $2.20 per bushel was fixed by law. The position of Federal food administrator was created, and Herbert C. Hoover, who had won world-wide fame as administrator of Belgian relief, was appointed to that position.

Government Takes Over Railroads.

The condition of the railroads in the United States was bad at the beginning of the war. The situation grew worse, and on December 26, 1917, the Federal government took control of the roads under authority granted by an act of the preceding year. As director general of the roads the President appointed his son-in-law, Secretary of the Treasury McAdoo. The experiment proved less successful than had been anticipated, however. Passenger and freight costs reached unprecedented heights and it ultimately became necessary for the government to expend vast sums to make good the deficit in cost of operation, including the guarantee to the stock holders.

Coal Shortage.

The seizure of the railroads was partly due to a bad shortage in the supply of coal due partly to government mismanagement. President Wilson appointed as fuel administrator Harry Garfield, son of the former President. In order to save fuel, a general shut-down of industries except those engaged in the production of war supplies was ordered for five days in the region east of the Mississippi River, and for several Mondays thereafter. The lack of coal was intensified by the fact that the winter of 1917-'18 in the United States was one of the coldest in our history. With the coming of milder weather the coal situation improved.

Enemy Aliens.

The presence in the United States of great numbers of Germans and Austro-Hungarians caused considerable uneasiness. Acts of Congress

required that all those who had not been naturalized must register as alien enemies and carry certificates of identification. The registration showed that there were about 500,000 Germans and almost four million Austro-Hungarian enemy aliens in the United States. Furthermore, there were millions of naturalized citizens from these powers, to say nothing of millions of their descendants. The enemy aliens were forbidden to go near military and naval establishments without special permits but unless suspected of dangerous intentions they were permitted to remain at large. Enemy spies and sympathizers succeeded in doing some damage in the way of blowing up munitions plants and causing "accidents" of one sort or another, but the Federal Secret Service proved very effective, and there was much less trouble of this sort than many people had anticipated. About 6,000 persons were arrested on personal warrants, many on mere suspicion. These persons were placed in internment camps, though many were ultimately released on bail. Over 1500 persons were arrested under the Espionage Act, which forbade disloyal utterances and giving aid and comfort to the enemy. Over 900 of these indictments were against Industrial Workers of the World, many of whom were German sympathizers. These I. W. W.'s did what they could to injure American industries by various kinds of "sabotage." One of their chief leaders, William D. Haywood, was sentenced to the penitentiary, was released on bail while his case was being carried to the Supreme Court, and escaped to Russia before he could be re-arrested after the sentence was confirmed. After the war was over many foreign agitators, including Alexander Berkman and Emma Goldman, were arrested and were deported from the country. The Socialist party split on the war issue. Some of the more conservative leaders, including John Spargo and Charles Edward Russell, stood by their country against German autocracy. Others denounced the war as having been forced upon the people by the ruling class. A few Socialists, including Eugene V. Debs and Victor Berger, were arrested and were convicted of seditious utterances. Debs served some of his sentence and was then reprieved by President Harding. Berger, a former Congressman from Milwaukee, was repeatedly elected to Congress but was not permitted to take his seat until finally the court set aside the verdict against him.

Industrial Workers of the World.

Socialists Split.

Russian Revolution.

In March, 1917, a revolution occurred in Russia. The Czar was deposed and imprisoned. Comparatively moderate men at first managed to control and set up a provisional government, among the members of which were Prince George Lvoff, Paul Miliukoff and Alexander Kerensky. The new government was soon recognized by the United States and the Entente Allies. In the United States much satisfaction was expressed in some circles over the overthrow of the autocracy, but

keen observers feared that the revolution would almost inevitably weaken Russia's military efforts, and so the event proved.

Russian Demoralization Begins.

Liberals in many countries hoped great things of the Russian revolution, but they were soon disillusioned. The great mass of the Russian people were ignorant and without experience in self government, and the inevitable in such cases happened. There was great confusion of council, and secret Teutonic agents did what they could to bring about chaos. The Soviets, as the councils of workers and soldiers delegates were called, considered the provisional government too moderate and desired a more thorough-going revolution. Honorable Russians who understood the situation wished to remain loyal to their allies and to continue the war, but a strong demand for peace developed. The Teutons cunningly took advantage of this situation and had their troops fraternize with the Russian soldiers. Strikes and bloody riots took place. Some of the most capable generals, including Brussilov and Korniloff resigned. A new cabinet was created, the main figure in which was Alexander Kerensky, the Minister of War.

Kerensky.

Kerensky was a Socialist but not an extreme radical. He realized that the Hohenzollerns and the Hapsburgs were the natural enemies of liberty, and he wished to continue the war until they were defeated. By his energy and unusual oratorical powers, Kerensky managed to postpone the inevitable. Revolts on the part of radicals were put down; General Brussilov was made Commander-in-Chief. Allied countries hurried special missions and offers of assistance to Russia, the mission from the United States being headed by ex-Secretary of State Elihu Root. Large sums of money were sent to Russia and more was promised.

Offensive Breaks Down.

Many Russians were anxious to continue the war to a successful conclusion, and patriotic women and girls even formed a military organization that came to be called the Battalion of Death. In June Kerensky went to the front and by fiery appeals succeeded in galvanizing the army into undertaking an offensive. At first the assailants won considerable successes, taking important positions and thousands of prisoners, but the army was honey-combed with discontent. Discipline broke down; many of the troops after capturing Teutonic positions refused to continue their advance and returned to their own lines. Officers who tried to enforce orders were murdered. The Teutons took advantage of the situation and began an offensive themselves. Meeting very little resistance, they recovered all they had lost, took Tarnopol and many other places, and captured much booty.

Riga Taken.

They followed up their success in the south by an attack upon Riga, which they had been unable to take in 1915. This great port and im-

portant naval station fell almost without resistance. This victory was hailed with great rejoicing in Germany.

Bolshevists and Lenine.

Meanwhile Brussilov had been succeeded by General Korniloff. Believing that the Kerensky government could not save Russia, Korniloff attempted a *coup d'état*, but his troops deserted and he was forced to surrender. Affairs in Russia were falling into complete chaos. The extreme radicals, known as the Bolshevists, were becoming more and more powerful. Their chief leader was Nicholas Lenine, who at the time of the revolution was living in exile in Switzerland. In the hope that they might be able to demoralize Russian efforts the Germans permitted Lenine and other radicals to cross Germany and reach Sweden, whence they went to Russia. In July Lenine led an uprising in Petrograd, but the time was not yet ripe and it was put down. In November, however, with the aid of disaffected troops and sailors, the Bolshevists seized Petrograd. Kerensky and some of his supporters took refuge in the Winter Palace, but realizing that resistance was hopeless, he escaped in disguise and ultimately reached England. The Winter Palace was stormed. Many of the women in the Battalion of Death were killed, some were mistreated, some were thrown into the Neva. The Winter Palace was plundered of its priceless tapestries, rugs, gold and silver plate and treasures of art.

Bolshevism in Control.

The victorious Bolshevists proceeded to form a new government, with Lenine as its head and Leon Trotzky, a Jew who had spent some time in America, as his first lieutenant. The new government, which pretended to represent proletarians, laborers and the poorer portion of the rural population, proceeded to put into effect plans of extreme socialism, the red flag was hoisted over the public buildings, all military ranks, titles and decorations were abolished, foreign debts and most of the national debt were repudiated, the land was seized and divided among the peasants.

SECTION VI.—CAMPAIGNS OF 1917.

Allied Plans for 1917.

In November, 1916, a military conference which was attended by representatives of all the Allied powers was held at the French General Headquarters. It was agreed that in the spring offensives should be begun on all fronts, and it was hoped that the war might be won that year.

In the early weeks of 1917 the British and French made vigorous preparations for the offensives that they intended to begin as soon as spring came. The main British preparations were made in the region

GENERAL BYNG

GRAND DUKE NICHOLAS OF RUSSIA

German Strategic Retreat.

of the Somme, and it was evident to the Germans that the British intended to recommence their drive of the previous year. In February the Germans began a slow and systematic retirement in that region and fell back to a previously prepared position of great strength called the Hindenburg Line. By this retreat the Germans gave up more than a thousand square miles of French territory, but they reduced it practically to a desert by filling up or poisoning the wells, destroying the villages, blowing up roads and bridges, and even cutting down vines and fruit trees. Most of the able-bodied men and women were deported to Germany to work for the conquerors. The children and the aged and infirm were left behind to be cared for by the French and British. This policy of devastation aroused bitter feeling among the Allies, but the Germans justified everything as a "war measure."

A Shrewd Step.

The German War Lords insisted that the retirement was a "strategic retreat" designed to disorganize the Allied plans for an offensive. In Great Britain and France the newspapers spoke satirically of this retreat but time was to show that it was a shrewd military movement. It made it necessary for the British to build roads across the desolated region and make new concentrations of men and guns in front of the line to which the Germans had retreated. This line was more powerful than the one that had been given up.

British Drive.

Early in April the British began their great offensive. It was preceded by a tremendous bombardment and by a great aerial conflict in which scores of planes were shot down on both sides and as a result of which the British had for a time almost complete control of the air. The new method of synchronizing artillery fire and infantry attack was employed, and many tanks and other devices were used. The main blows struck were in the region about Lens and east of Arras. Canadian troops under Byng captured Vimy Ridge, one of the strongest positions on the Western Front. It was one of the most brilliant exploits of the whole war. After peace came General Byng was raised to the peerage as Lord Byng of Vimy, and for some years served as Governor General of Canada. In other places the British made progress and in a few days captured more ground and more guns than had been taken in all the Somme offensive of the previous year. The Germans brought up hundreds of thousands of men and made great concentrations of artillery, but still the British gradually moved forward.

Vimy Ridge.

French Offensive Fails.

For the scene of their offensive the French had selected the sector before Rheims and Soissons. The success of General Nivelle's methods in the two attacks against the Germans in the region of Verdun—"the two Immortal Sisters"—had aroused great hopes that by using these

methods on a larger scale the German lines might be broken and the invaders driven out of France and Belgium. On April 16th the French began the greatest offensive they had yet undertaken. In places the new methods worked well, but the German positions were immensely strong and often the artillery fire failed to make effective preparation for the infantry attack. The assailants frequently were met with heavy machine-gun fire and suffered horrible losses. In two weeks the French took 20,000 prisoners and almost 200 guns, but their own losses were terrific and the offensive was given up. Nivelle was succeeded in command by Pétain, the defender of Verdun, while General Foch became Chief of Staff. General Mangin, one of the most aggressive of all the French officers, was temporarily relieved of command because of the losses suffered by his troops, but he re-appeared gloriously next year as a commander in the first great Allied counter-offensive.

Nivelle Removed.

A Curious Version.

According to one story the French gave up their offensive at a moment when victory was almost within the Allied grasp. It is said that the Germans had used up practically all of their reserves and that if the British and French had continued to press them vigorously a complete break-through and a decisive victory might have been achieved. According to this story the offensive was called off because some French political leaders who witnessed the offensive were appalled at the French losses, with the result that the government overruled the military leaders and stopped the drive. General Haig and Premier Lloyd George, it is said, begged the French to persist in the drive but in vain. What is certain is that the failure of the offensive cast a cloud of gloom over France. The offensive spirit of the French troops was temporarily destroyed. Mutinies broke out in some regiments, and the private soldiers practically served notice upon the officers that they would fight on the defensive but would refuse to engage in an offensive. In France and even more in Great Britain the gloom caused by the practical failure of the offensive was heightened by the fact that in this month of April German submarines were sinking Allied merchant ships so rapidly that if the same rate of destruction continued the Germans would be able to starve Great Britain into submission. For its effect on Allied morale the Allied commissioners in America successfully urged that American troops should be sent to France.

Allied Gloom.

Pershing.

As commander of the expeditionary forces President Wilson chose Major General John J. Pershing. After graduating from West Point Pershing saw service against the Apache Indians and in the Spanish-American War. As a military observer he was attached to the Japanese forces in Manchuria and had an opportunity to witness modern warfare

"LAFAYETTE, WE ARE HERE" AMERICAN TROOPS IN PARIS

on a large scale. For service in the Philippines against the Moros, President Roosevelt, a keen judge of men, promoted him from Captain to Brigadier-General. In 1916 he led the expedition sent into Mexico in pursuit of Villa.

Pershing in France.

On June 8th, General Pershing and his staff reached Liverpool, and after conferences with British leaders crossed over to France, where he was received with enthusiasm. When he drove through the streets of Paris, great crowds filled the streets, waving American flags and shouting "*Vive l'Amerique!*" He visited the tomb of Napoleon and was permitted to touch the sword of the first Emperor, the first time that it had been touched since the days of Louis Phillippe. Pershing visited the French Senate, the Chamber of Deputies and many other public places, but the most interesting occasion of all took place when he was taken to see the tomb of La Fayette. There he was received by the Marquis de Chambrun, descendant of the friend of America, and listened to some words of welcome. He replied in but a single sentence, but that sentence summed up the immortal past and the hope of the future. It was: "La Fayette, we are here."

First Division in France.

The honor of being the first organization to be sent to France was bestowed upon the First Division. This division was composed of regular regiments that had been expanded by taking in large numbers of volunteers. The Germans had boasted that their submarines would sink any vessels that attempted to bring American troops to Europe, but ships bearing the division crossed the Atlantic in safety, and the troops disembarked at St. Nazaire in the last days of June. There and elsewhere they were greeted with unsurpassed enthusiasm by the eager French. On the 4th of July a battalion marched through the streets of Paris amid endless throngs of cheering people.

Training Period.

In the United States and in France many people supposed that the division would soon be sent to the fighting line, but most of the men were comparatively raw and many months of hard training would be required to fit them to meet the Germans on equal terms. The division was transferred to Lorraine for this training. Pershing made his headquarters at Chaumont. He and his assistants then threw themselves into the tremendous task that lay before them.

Delays.

The French military men realized that a long time must elapse before America could take much part in the fighting, but uninformed French people, who had exaggerated ideas of American ability and who had expected that in a short time Americans would be aiding them to chase the hated Boches from their beloved country, felt great disappointment when month after month passed and the Americans still did not participate in the fighting. Ultimately some of them began

to feel that the Americans never would take part. This belief was encouraged by the Germans, who had from the outset insisted that "America would not fight."

Second Battle of Flanders.

Early in June the British began a new offensive against the German positions in the region of Ypres in Flanders. Elaborate preparations were made by laying pipe-lines, building roads and railroads, bringing up artillery and millions of shells, and by digging mines under German positions on Messines Ridge. Shortly after three o'clock on the morning of June 7th the British fired nineteen mines simultaneously, producing a roar so tremendous that Premier Lloyd George heard the sound at his country residence outside of London, a distance of 130 miles. The British artillery opened fire and the infantry, supported by many tanks, moved forward. By night the British had taken many important positions, over 7,000 prisoners, and nearly a hundred cannon. Thus began the so-called Second Battle of Flanders, a great "push" that was even bloodier than the Somme offensive of the year before.

An Inferno of Battle.

Throughout the summer and fall the British, aided by some French troops, continued their drive in Flanders. Guns roared unceasingly and at intervals the assailants made infantry attacks. The Germans concentrated immense numbers of men and guns to oppose their enemies. The earth was so blasted up by shell fire that it was almost impossible to cross it, especially when heavy rains transformed the shell craters into deep pools. Many instances occurred when pack animals and even men fell into these pools and were drowned. A German war correspondent said, "It is a Cyclopean concert of unheard-of brutality, to celebrate with becoming fitness the end of the third year of universal madness."

Results.

Slowly and against powerful opposition the British forged forward and had reached positions whence they could have achieved still greater successes had not wet weather put an end to the drive. In this offensive the British had captured over 30,000 Germans and had killed or wounded hundreds of thousands more. The British losses, however, were very great.

French Take Chemin des Dames.

Late in October the French struck a heavy blow northeast of Soissons, taking 8,000 prisoners and many guns and forcing the Germans to evacuate the important Chemin des Dames, a road along the ridge dominating the Aisne and Ailette valleys.

Greek Affairs.

In September, 1916, a Bulgarian force entered eastern Greece and seized the town of Kavala. Acting under instructions from Athens, the Greek troops in that region made no resistance, and several thousands were made prisoners and were taken to Germany. This episode

showed conclusively the pro-German sympathies of King Constantine and caused great indignation in Greece. Ex-Premier Venizelos and Admiral Condouriotis established a provisional government in Crete, and this government was soon recognized by most of the Greek islands and by some districts on the mainland. The Greek fleet went over to this government, and troops were raised by it. War was then declared upon the Central Powers. In order to end Teutonic intrigues and prevent King Constantine from attacking the Allied army at Salonica from the rear, the King's government was compelled to transfer their army to the Peloponnesus and to make other concessions. In June, 1917, King Constantine was compelled to abdicate in favor of his second son, Prince Alexander. Venizelos regained power, and soon the whole of Greece entered the war on the Allied side.

Constantine Deposed.

In 1916 and 1917 Allied prestige was increased by successes over the Turks. The people of Arabia were encouraged to rise up against the Turks and to establish a kingdom of Arabia, ruled by Grand Sherif Hussein Ben Ali of Mecca. In February, 1917, the British army in Mesopotamia, commanded by General Maude, retook Kut-el-Amara, and moving rapidly up the Tigris captured the city of Bagdad. Meanwhile a British force moved up from Egypt and defeated a Turkish army near Gaza. The ultimate objective of this army was the City of Jerusalem, but owing to the desert condition of the country it was necessary to construct a railroad and lay a water main with which to supply the troops with water, and this work took time. In October, 1917, General Sir Edmund Allenby took command and began an energetic offensive which culminated in December in the capture of the Holy City of Jerusalem. For the first time since the Crusades the tomb of the Savior was in Christian hands.

Bagdad Taken.

Jerusalem Captured.

After the cessation of the Austrian drive in the Trentino in the spring of 1916 the Italians had continued their offensive along their eastern frontier and made some progress, their most notable success being the capture of Goritzia. In the spring, summer and early fall of 1917 they continued their attacks, and gained a number of successes. In August they forced their way across the Isonzo River and took thousands of prisoners and made considerable progress toward Trieste.

Italian Progress.

But neither these successes nor those of the Allies on the Western Front were in any way decisive. Russian demoralization made it possible for the Central Powers to transfer large forces from the east front to the other scenes of battle. America was not yet ready to take Russia's place. While she was making belated preparations the Teutons were able to strike terrific blows against their enemies and came near winning the war.

Teutonic Opportunity.

Italian Disaster.

The first blow fell upon the Italians. Several hundred thousand Austro-Hungarian troops and several German divisions, with great numbers of cannon, were transferred from the Russian front to the Italian front. Along one sector the Italian forces had been demoralized by fraternizing with their enemies. This having been accomplished, the Austrian troops were removed and German troops took their place. Toward the end of October the Teutons launched a terrific offensive. German "shock" troops broke through on a wide front in the Julian Alps, and through the gap thus formed the Teutonic Generals poured vast forces, which widened the gap and threatened to outflank the Italian forces toward the Adriatic. To avoid complete disaster, the whole Italian line on the east front had to give way and retreat. After them poured the exultant victors, capturing prisoners in immense numbers and vast booty in guns and supplies. They retook Goritzia, crossed the border into Italy, forced their way over the Tagliamento and the Livenza, and drew near to Venice. In a week's time they had taken nearly 200,000 prisoners and nearly 2,500 guns.

Lloyd George Hurries to Italy.

Throughout the world the question was asked, Is it to be the story of Poland, Servia, Roumania over again? But this time Allied leaders did not procrastinate. Lloyd George hurried to Paris and soon British and French troops were on their way to Italy. Lloyd George himself, accompanied by the Prince of Wales, General Smuts, General Robertson and others, hurried to Italy to give assurance of support. The Italian government was re-constituted with Signor Orlando as Premier. General Diaz succeeded General Cadorna as Commander-in-Chief. Italian spirit rose to meet the crisis and the Italian army, taking position on the western bank of the Piave River, brought the invaders to a pause.

Diaz.

A Critical Situation.

The Teutons now began an offensive from the Trentino, hoping to break through and get in the rear of the defenders along the Piave. They captured many passes and gradually forced their way southward. British and French troops helped to stiffen the resistance, but the issue was still in doubt when the fall of heavy snows in the Alpine passes brought an end to the drive.

Results.

For the time being Italy was safe yet the Teutons had won a great victory. In two months they had captured a quarter of a million prisoners, nearly 3,000 cannon and immense stores of munitions and had not only retaken practically all the Austrian territory conquered by the Italians in three bitter campaigns, but they had also overrun all northeastern Italy. Temporarily they were halted, but it was certain that when spring came they would renew their offensive and attempt to overrun the Lombard Plain and put Italy out of the war.

GENERAL JOHN J. PERSHING

Battle of the Tanks.

The British and French on the Western Front were not powerful enough to make a general attack in order to relieve the pressure upon the Italians, but on November 20th, partly by way of diversion and partly as an experiment, the British army under General Byng launched a sudden attack in the region of Cambrai. The German line in this position was exceedingly powerful, consisting of wide belts of barbed-wire entanglements, trenches, tunnels and redoubts. To distract German attention the British heavily bombarded German positions further north. By night they assembled just back of their own lines great numbers of tanks. Early in the morning of the day appointed, the British artillery suddenly opened a tremendous fire, and at the same moment the British infantry and tanks moved forward behind the barrage of shells. The Germans were taken completely by surprise. Before they had time to make any preparation for defense the tanks and the infantry were among them, the tanks having torn down and flattened the barbed wire entanglements, so that the infantry could pass through. Many of the Germans surrendered without resistance; others fled. By nightfall the British had broken completely through on a wide front, had taken several thousand prisoners, with slight loss to themselves, and were close to Cambrai. Had reserve forces been available to throw into the gap, much might have been accomplished, but the Allied reserves had been depleted by the necessity of sending troops to aid the Italians. German resistance stiffened, and on the last day of November they launched a counter-attack in which they recovered much of the lost territory and took many prisoners.

Germans Counter-Attack.

Significance of the Battle.

The battle of Cambrai is chiefly important because their success in the initial attack encouraged the British and French to construct great numbers of tanks. Throughout the winter and spring of 1917-'18 factories were kept busy constructing many tanks, especially light, swift tanks, and these implements of war were to prove a great factor in the Allied offensives of the next year.

Clemenceau.

In the autumn of 1917 the Ribot ministry gave way to a new one under M. Painlevé. The Italian disaster brought on a new crisis which resulted in the formation of still another ministry headed by ex-Premier Georges Clemenceau. Though almost eighty years of age, Clemenceau possessed tremendous energy and determination. He took rigorous measures to counteract "defeatism," which was threatening the prospects of victory. He even had ex-Premier Caillaux arrested for alleged treasonable correspondence with the enemy, and he brought about the conviction and execution of Bolo Pasha, a German tool whose activities had extended to the United States. Clemenceau possessed

the dauntlessness needed in such a crisis, and to criticisms of his actions he returned the significant answer, "I make war." He predicted that some day the people of France would acclaim the news of victory.

Supreme War Council.

Lloyd George took advantage of the Italian disaster to urge upon the Allies the need of greater co-operation. He said that "the war has been prolonged by particularism, it will be shortened by solidarity." Other statesmen felt as did Lloyd George, and at a meeting of the Prime Ministers of Great Britain, France and Italy, November 9, 1917, at Rapallo in Italy, it was decided to create a Supreme War Council. This was a step in the right direction, but time was to prove that it was not adequate to meet the needs of the situation.

Bolshevists Desire Peace.

After the Bolshevists gained control in Russia affairs went from bad to worse. Late in November the Lenine government announced that proposals would be made to the various belligerents to begin negotiations for peace. Orders were sent to General Dukhonin to enter into negotiations with the enemy for a suspension of hostilities. Dukhonin refused and was deposed and murdered. An appeal was sent to the working men in Allied countries to compel their governments to stop the war. Had this proposal been carried out, it would have meant victory for the Central Powers. Beyond question some of the Bolshevist leaders were in German pay and were playing the German game.

Treaty of Brest-Litovsk.

In December an armistice was signed at Brest-Litovsk between the Russians and the Central Powers. On February 9, 1918, representatives of the Ukraine Republic, which had been recently set up, signed a formal treaty of peace with the Central Powers. Meanwhile peace negotiations were carried on between the Bolshevists and the Teutons. The Teutonic terms were extremely harsh and the Bolshevists refused to accept them. The Germans thereupon renewed the war but met with almost no resistance. They captured many prisoners, thousands of guns and much war material. Finding resistance hopeless, the Bolshevists consented to accept the humiliating treaty of Brest-Litovsk. Under this treaty Russia resigned her claims to Courland, Livonia, Esthonia, Lithuania, the Ukraine, Poland, Finland and certain territory south of the Caucasus Mountains on the border of Turkey. Finland became an independent state, and for a short time was ruled by Prince Charles of Hess, a brother-in-law of Emperor William. The Russians were compelled to demobilize their armies, and to send their warships to German ports. Subsequently heavy financial indemnities were demanded, and Russia was treated as if she were a conquered country. Russia's withdrawal from the conflict left Roumania without any support. To escape annihilation she was forced to sign at Bucharest, March 5, 1918, a treaty by which she agreed to cede the Dobrudja to Bulgaria and to demobilize her army.

Roumania Makes Peace.

Russian Royal Family Murdered.

After his abdication Czar Nicholas was imprisoned in a house at Ekaterinberg in the Ural Mountains. With him were his wife, the Crown Prince, and his four daughters, all beautiful girls just blossoming into womanhood. The royal family received much humiliating treatment from the Red guards, but for a time the Czar was allowed a certain amount of liberty and spent part of his time cutting down trees in the forest. He followed the course of events with much interest, and his diary shows that he was very eager to see Allied armies victorious. In July, 1918, a rumor came that Siberian troops were on their way to rescue the royal family, and the local Soviet determined to put them to death. The prisoners were taken to the cellar of the house and there were brutally shot to death.

Character of Nicholas.

Thus passed from history the last ruler of the House of Romanoff. It was one of the tragedies of history that in personal character he was one of the best of that long line. His intentions were good; he it was who called both the first and the second Hague Conferences in the hope of promoting international peace. But he was a creature of circumstance, and, strange to say, during his reign Russia engaged in two great wars, the last of which brought about his downfall and death. His fate and that of his family has many points of resemblance to that which befell Louis XVI. and his family. Both rulers were well meaning but weak, and both were the last of long lines of autocrats.

Retreat of the Czecho-Slovaks.

In the polyglot Austria-Hungarian Empire were various peoples who wished to be freed from the Hapsburg yoke. Notable among these were the Czecho-Slovaks. Scores of thousands of the Czecho-Slovak troops in the Austria-Hungarian armies deserted to the Russians or were captured by them after little or no resistance. Many of these prisoners willingly entered the Russian service and helped their fellow Slavs against their former rulers. A special Czecho-Slovak force was created. When the treaty with Germany removed Russia from the war, this force, amounting to about 60,000 men, was near Kiev in the Ukraine. Rejecting overtures made to them by envoys from Emperor Charles, the Czecho-Slovaks fought their way eastward out of the Ukraine and eastward through Russia and Siberia and after many perils finally reached Vladivostok.

Czecho-Slovakia Recognized.

Czechs and Slovaks in many parts of the world were hopeful that the war would bring freedom to their oppressed countrymen in Austria-Hungary. Some of them formed a provisional government headed by Dr. Thomas G. Masaryk. In 1918 the United States and other Allied nations recognized the independence of the Czecho-Slovaks, although at that time every foot of their soil was in the possession of the House of Hapsburg.

Air Raids on England.

Until the end of the war the Germans continued to make air raids upon England. As the British air defenses improved the raids became more and more hazardous, especially to the Zeppelins, several of which were shot down. On October 19, 1917, a dozen of these monster craft reached England, and some bombs were dropped upon London, but only half the raiders returned home. Thereafter Zeppelins were little used; experience had shown that they were not a success against an enemy that was well prepared against them. Airplane raids upon England continued. In the course of the war Zeppelins made 51 raids upon England, airplanes 59. In all, about 4,800 people were killed or wounded; all but 700 of these were civilians, the greater part women and children.

Reprisals.

For a long time the British refrained from reprisals in kind. But after a particularly murderous raid on London in October, 1917, Premier Lloyd George, after a visit to the scene of death, gave way and announced: "We shall bomb Germany with compound interest." In the next year, French and American aviators made many raids upon German towns in the Rhine region. When the armistice came, powerful planes were almost ready to make a raid upon Berlin.

SECTION VII.—THE GREAT GERMAN OFFENSIVE OF 1918.

Peace Discussions.

During the winter of 1917-'18, long-range peace discussions took place between the Allies and the Central Powers. The Teutons did not definitely make known their terms, but those that they imposed upon Russia, as we have seen, were very drastic, and beyond question they would have insisted upon being treated as victors. Leaders in all the Allied countries expressed themselves regarding these peace overtures, the most notable utterances being those of Lloyd George and President Wilson. Both insisted that Belgium must be evacuated and indemnified, that territory invaded by the Central Powers must everywhere be evacuated and that Alsace-Lorraine must be ceded to France. President Wilson formulated his peace program under fourteen points. These included generally recognized Allied claims together with a few of his own. They will be set forth in greater detail in the account given of the negotiations of the final armistice.

Delusion in Washington.

In Washington many of those in authority still believed that the war could be ended without the necessity of the United States doing much fighting. It was thought that a real peace conference was impending. For the use of the American representatives two scholars were set to work editing a sort of diplomatic history of the world

FIELD MARSHAL VON HINDENBURG

since 1870. Topics were sent out to historians and authorities on international law in all parts of the country, with instructions that the articles must be ready in a month's time. As it happened the peace conference did not materialize, and this diplomatic history was not published until after the war ended.

Teutonic Threats.

Fate had decreed that soldiers and not adepts in note writing were to end the war. While making their proffers of peace the Teutons were also truculently threatening dire destruction against those who did not lay down their arms. In a speech to some of his troops the Kaiser declared, "If the enemy does not want peace, then we must bring peace to the world by battering in with the iron fist and shining sword the doors of those who will not have peace."

Teutonic Will-o'-the-Wisps.

Throughout the conflict the German War Lords had held up a succession of delusive promises before their people. At the outset they had announced that they would destroy France by one speedy blow and have peace by Christmas. In 1915 the war was to be won by conquering Russia. In 1916 France was to be bled white, and the war was to be won around Verdun. At the beginning of 1917 the submarine was to compel Great Britain to terms in three months. The submarine had worked great havoc among Allied merchantmen and at one time seemed likely to prove the decisive factor, but improved methods were evolved for meeting the menace, and the submarine was decreasing in effectiveness. Now the War Lords said that they would destroy the French and British armies before America could take an effective part and that peace would be won by the sword on the Western Front.

Teutonic Superiority.

From the Teutonic point of view the military situation was encouraging. Russia and Roumania had been compelled to withdraw from the conflict, and the United States was not ready to take the place left by their defection. It was possible for the Teutonic leaders to send most of the troops, guns and munitions on the East Front, together with many captured Russian guns, to the West Front. Thanks to these reinforcements, the German forces confronting the French and British were for the first time since the early months of the war superior to their adversaries in numbers. Thanks to this superiority the Germans were in a position, if they chose, to pass from the defensive to the offensive. Late in 1917 French and British leaders began to realize this possibility and to prepare for it. Troops were regrouped and efforts were made to improve the Allied defenses. Compared to those of the Germans, these defenses were weak, the reason being that for more than a year the French and British commanders had expected to be constantly on the offensive and had not deemed it necessary to prepare very powerful lines.

Where Will the Blow Fall?

Some military critics considered it probable that the Teutonic blow would fall not in France but against the Italians or perhaps against the Allied army around Salonica, but a complete victory in either of these fields of action would not have ended the war, and the German High Command were anxious to strike a decisive blow before the United States could make its power felt. The one place where such a blow could be delivered was in France, and it was there that the War Lords decided to strike. They would destroy the French and British armies, capture Paris, conquer France, dominate the Continent of Europe; they could then stand at bay and bid defiance to Great Britain, the United States and petty enemies throughout the world.

Vast Preparations.

In preparation for the great offensive everything that German ingenuity could accomplish was done. Every able-bodied man who could be spared from industry was sent to the front, and, as was said of the Confederacy near the end of the Civil War, they "robbed the cradle and the grave," to fill their ranks. Men, cannon, shells and other munitions were concentrated along the Western Front. Special bodies of "shock" troops, composed of selected men from other organizations, were formed and trained for the part they were to play. Large numbers of light guns that could be carried by hand were provided. These guns were to be taken forward by the advancing infantry for use against enemy positions that had survived the fire of the German artillery.

The Place.

The region selected for the great drive was that between Cambrai and St. Quentin along a front of fifty miles. Thousands of guns and tens of millions of shells were brought up, and about a hundred divisions were concentrated for the attack. These preparations were made as secretly as possible; much of the troop movements being made at night. Nevertheless the British were aware that something was impending, but did not realize the force of the blow.

The British.

The British army against which the main blow fell was the Fifth, commanded by General Gough. Many of the troops composing it were not notable for training or efficiency. The defenses, though they would have been considered extremely powerful at the beginning of the war, were much inferior to those of the Germans opposing them. They consisted of a front "outpost" line, then a "battle" line, and then a final "defensive" line. Not much had been done to prepare fortifications further back.

The Kaiser's Battle.

On the early morning of March 21st the Germans began what they called the "Kaiser's Battle," by opening from thousands of guns a bombardment surpassing anything that had gone before. The front lines were deluged with shells, many of them containing poison gas of

the most deadly character; and roads, villages and concentration points even twenty miles back of the front lines were bombarded by long-range German guns of high velocity and large calibre. After a few hours of this inferno the German infantry in great numbers moved forward, taking with them every weapon likely to be helpful. A heavy mist aided the assailants, and in places they were almost upon the British works before they could be seen. Beyond question it was the most tremendous attack ever delivered in history. The British resisted valiantly but in vain. Though suffering heavily, the Germans broke through, sweeping the surviving defenders back before them.

Super-Guns Bombard Paris.

On the third day of the attack the people of Paris were surprised to find shells bursting in their streets. Looking up they could perceive no enemy aircraft and at first the impression was that the enemy was dropping bombs from airships soaring over the city at an incredible height. That the missiles had been fired by German artillery was unbelievable, for the nearest German positions were seventy miles from the city, and no cannon up to that time had ever had a range half that great. Fragments of the explosives were found and examined, and it was discovered that they bore rifling marks, showing that they had been fired from cannon. It was suggested that German agents had succeeded in placing a gun close to the city, but this notion was given up. In reality the shells were fired from German super-guns in the forest of St. Gobain seventy-four miles from the city. These guns had been constructed by taking a naval gun of large calibre and inserting within the gun a much longer but smaller tube having a calibre of about eight inches. The powder chamber of the original gun gave tremendous power for a weapon of this calibre. In firing such a great distance the guns of course were very much elevated and it was estimated that the shells in their flight attained a height of over forty miles. Fortunately the shells, though long, were of comparatively small calibre, and since they must be very heavy in proportion to size it was possible to put in them only a small explosive charge. The damage effected by them was comparatively small. The greatest disaster occurred when a shell struck a church crowded with worshippers; nearly two hundred people were killed or wounded.

Teutonic Expectations.

The main German hope seems to have been that these guns would help to break down French morale. With German troops breaking through their lines and with shells fired from unheard of distances falling in their capital, the Germans hoped that the French would see for themselves that it was useless to fight such a people. All over the world the news created a great sensation, but the French though astonished, soon shrugged their shoulders, and the real effect of the

super-guns was comparatively small. So far as destruction was concerned, much more damage was done in this period by frequent air raids. The German airplanes sometimes flew low enough over Paris to fire with their machine-guns upon the people on the streets. The German offensive, the bombardment and the air raids caused nearly a million people to leave the city and take refuge in more remote places.

Gap Closed.

The defeat of the British Third Army opened a gap between the British Third Army under Byng and the French troops who occupied positions on the right of the Fifth Army. It was the German hope to separate the French and British armies and to destroy the British and then turn upon the French. At one time a complete gap was indeed opened, but before the Germans could occupy it a scratch force of troops, Chinese laborers, and American engineers, was collected to defend it. Machine-guns were taken from a nearby depot, and time after time this heterogeneous force threw the Germans back. Finally reinforcements arrived and the gap was effectually closed. Further south French divisions were hurried to close the gap that was opening between the French forces and the retiring British.

Byng Stands Firm Before Arras.

By the sixth day of battle the Germans had taken Peronne, Ham and other places and had even crossed the old Somme battle line of 1916. In less than a week they had recovered practically all the territory they had lost in the battle of the Somme and in the strategic retreat of the following spring and had taken multitudes of prisoners and vast quantities of war booty in guns and munitions. It now became necessary, however, for them to widen the gap in order to gain greater freedom of movement. Vast forces were flung against the Third Army in the region of Arras. But the Third British Army was a splendid fighting force, including in its numbers many Canadians, and commanded by General Byng, the victor of Vimy Ridge. The Third Army resisted with the greatest determination and flung back the German assailants with tremendous slaughter. Though forced to draw back his right wing somewhat in order to keep touch with the fragments of the retreating Fifth Army, Byng held fast his main positions and stemmed the German flood on the north.

Foch Commander-in-Chief.

Throughout the war the Allied cause had been greatly hampered because there was no united command. A War Council had been created the preceding year but though it was an improvement over the old situation, councils have rarely been notable for successful direction of military operations. The crisis resulting from the great German drive at last forced the Allies to take a step that should have been taken long before. Largely through the influence of Lloyd George, the position of generalissimo was conferred upon Ferdinand Foch on March 27th.

GENERAL FERDINAND FOCH

GAS ALARM, VERDUN, FRANCE

VARENNES, CAPTURED BY AMERICANS IN THE ARGONNE DRIVE

Next day General Pershing called upon Foch at his headquarters and placed the American forces at his disposal. Ultimately Foch was given general oversight over operations on all the military fronts.

American Troops Brigaded with the French and British.

When the United States entered the war both the British and French military authorities began to urge that we should not attempt to create a separate army for use in France but should furnish soldiers to be used as replacements in the British and French armies. In support of this plan they pointed to their own depleted man power and to the great length of time that would be required to create a new military machine. But the American government and General Pershing rejected these suggestions, only to have them repeatedly renewed. Upon his arrival in France General Pershing set to work to create a separate American army, but the great German drive made it necessary to modify his plans. The need of speedy reinforcements was so great that it was agreed that American troops should be brigaded with the French and British armies and should fight under French and British direction. Pershing did not, however, give up his plan for the ultimate formation of a separate American force.

A Great Troop Movement.

At this time there were less than 400,000 American troops in France, and half of them were engaged in non-combatant occupations. Of the remainder comparatively few were considered well trained enough to be sent into battle, and only one division, the First, was moved to the front, being placed in the region of Montdidier. In cantonments in America, however, there were a million and a half men who had received some training, and it was decided to hurry them to Europe as rapidly as possible. There was great shortage of ships but the British sacrificed their commerce to supply vessels, and as time passed we were able to furnish an increasing number. Soon there began the greatest movement of men over seas the world had seen, and by July 300,000 men a month were landing in French or English ports. The Germans had boasted that their submarines would prevent the Americans from coming over, but the boast proved a hollow one. In all only 396 American soldiers lost their lives as a result of submarine attacks.

Germans Halted.

During the early days of the great German drive the assailants moved forward with great rapidity. But presently they began to get ahead of their artillery and their supplies. They were unable to widen the gap either to the north or to the south. Fresh French and British troops came up and ultimately the Germans were brought to a halt, a few miles from the important town of Amiens. General Foch began preparations for a counter-attack but before he was ready the Germans began a new drive in Flanders, in the region of Armentières and the La Bassée Canal. On April 9th the Germans, after a fierce bombard-

Flanders Drive.

ment, moved forward on a ten-mile front. They broke through positions held by a Portugese division and then widened the gap to right and left, taking many prisoners and guns. Continuing their offensive on the 10th and 11th they took Armentières and pushed on as far as Merville. The British situation was becoming desperate, for there was danger that the Germans would break completely through, fling the British forces back upon the Channel in disorder, and achieve one of the most stupendous victories in all history. On the 12th General Haig issued a supreme appeal to his troops to stand firm. "There must be no retirement," he said. "With our backs to the wall and believing in the justice of our cause, each one of us must fight to the end. The safety of our homes and the freedom of mankind depend alike upon the conduct of each one of us at this critical moment."

British Dogged-ness.

Fortunately it is proverbial that British soldiers are stubborn fighters. The Germans threw in fresh divisions and thrust fiercely forward. Strong positions changed hands repeatedly. The British lost Passchendael, and Messines Ridge and all the ground that they had captured in their fierce Flanders offensive of the preceding year. Ypres was hard pressed, and Mt. Kemmel to the south of it was taken. But an increasing number of French troops came up opportunely and after three weeks of fighting the conflict gradually died down.

Tactical Victories but no Decision.

The Germans had won two great tactical victories. They had virtually destroyed one British army and had captured more than 100,000 prisoners and close to 2,000 guns, besides vast quantities of other war material. But they had not achieved the great strategic purpose of dividing the French and British armies and beating each in detail before effective aid from America could arrive. Their own losses had been very great, and the British and French, though hard pressed, had survived the storm. If they could hold out only a little longer America's might would arrive in time to turn the scale and win the war.

antigny.

During the next few weeks there was much fighting but no great attacks. On May 28th American troops for the first time engaged in a considerable attack. On that day the First Division carried out an attack upon German positions at Cantigny near Montdidier. After artillery bombardment two battalions of infantry, one under Colonel Ely and the other under Lieutenant Colonel Theodore Roosevelt, Jr., went over the top and, aided by tanks loaned by the Allies, took their objectives and held them against repeated counter-attacks. Two hundred prisoners were captured, and losses estimated at 1500 were inflicted upon the enemy. The loss of the First Division was slightly over 1000. Three weeks later the Americans carried out another local offensive in the same region and took important positions and more than 250 prisoners.

RUINS OF CLOTH HALL, YPRES, BELGIUM

DIRECTING FIRE ON RHEIMS

New German Drive.

These exploits attracted little attention, for on the day before the first attack upon Cantigny, the Germans launched their third great drive. The place selected was a thirty mile front in the region west of Rheims. The Allies were not expecting an attack in that sector and the lines were lightly held by only eight French and British divisions, some of which had suffered heavily in the drive towards Amiens. Against this small force the Germans hurled nearly half a million men. With slight losses they recovered the Chemin des Dames, crossed the Aisne and Vesle Rivers, and came flooding down once more to the Marne. By May 31st the Germans were at Chateau-Thierry, within forty miles of Paris.

Americans Hurry to the Front.

The situation was again critical. Fortunately Rheims and the high ground called the Mountain of Rheims on the east and French positions on the west side of the break held firm and prevented the Germans from widening the salient. Foch was short of reserves and seems to have felt that the time had come to try the mettle of the Americans. By trains and motor trucks the Second Division under Major General Bundy and the Third Division under Major General Dickman were hurried to the region of Chateau-Thierry. The Seventh Motorized Machine-Gun Battalion of the Third Division at once proceeded to the firing line and aided French troops to defend the bridge over the Marne. The fight at this bridge has been thus described by Brigadier General Catlin:

Machine-Gun Battalion.

"A hurried and despairing call for help went out—any help at all, so that it came quickly. Some kilometers to the rear was stationed an American machine-gun battalion that was ready and eager for battle, but was waiting for the fuller organization of the Third Division. But this was no time for waiting. The battalion was ordered in without support and made a speedy all-night trip to the front on motor-lorries. These boys had never faced German shell-fire before; they were stiff and cramped after their long night ride, but the smell of powder and the roar of combat were like wine to them, and they jumped into the thick of the fray like veterans. Joining a battalion of French Colonials, they entered the town and rushed to the threatened bank of the river.

The Bridge Held.

"Under a galling fire they brought up their guns and organized their defense positions at the bridges with mathematical precision. Then came the Germans, a long, gray flood of them, streaming down to the bridges. The Americans opened upon them a fire so furious and accurate that the advancing columns hesitated, wavered, and then halted behind the barrier of their fallen comrades. Then they came on again. On the bridges and in the streets of Chateau-Thierry there raged a wild, demoniacal tempest of machine-gun fire and rifle-fire. The enemy,

infuriated by this resistance, fought desperately to brush the offensive Yankees from their path. Our boys fell by the dozens beside their guns, but there was always some one to leap into the breach and keep the stream of bullets pouring into the ranks of the thwarted Huns. They held the southern bank of the Marne against the onslaught; they cleared the bridges; and at last they destroyed them, and the Germans could not pass."

The Marines.

Other units of the Second Division were sent forward to relieve the hard pressed French. One brigade of the Second Division consisted of Marines, commanded by Brigadier General Harbord. These men were notable for being well trained and for their skill with a rifle. On the afternoon of the 4th the Germans advanced, brushing back the French troops and then attacking the Marines. An eyewitness wrote of this attack:

Germans Attack.

"The Germans swept down an open slope in platoon waves, across a wide wheat-field bright with poppies that gleamed like splashes of blood in the afternoon sun. The French met the attack, and then fell steadily back. First I saw the French coming back through the wheat, fighting as they came. Then the Germans, in two columns, steady as machines. To me as a military man it was a beautiful sight. I could not but admire the precision and steadiness of those waves of gray with the sun glinting on the helmets. On they came, never wavering, never faltering, apparently irresistible.

American Marksmanship.

"At the right moment the Americans opened up with a slashing barrage. Shrapnel, machine-gun, and rifle-fire was poured into those advancing lines. It was terrible in its effectiveness. The French told us that they had never seen such marksmanship practised in the heat of battle. If the German advance had looked beautiful to me, that metal curtain that our marines rang down on the scene was even more so. The German lines did not break; they were broken. The Boches fell by scores there among the wheat and poppies. They hesitated, they halted, they withdrew a pace. Then they came on again; they were brave men.....Three times they tried to reform and break through that barrage, but they had to stop at last."

Belleau Wood.

Not content with standing on the defensive, the Americans undertook offensives against German positions in their front. On June 6th the Marine Brigade began an attack on Belleau Wood. This wood, which was more than a square mile in extent, was strongly held by the Germans, who were amply supplied with machine-guns. For days a bitter battle was fought for possession of the wood, and the Marines stalked machine-gun nests as hunters stalk big game. For a few days

the Marines were relieved by the Seventh Infantry but after a rest they returned to the task and ultimately all the Germans in the wood were either killed, driven out or taken, the prisoners numbering 800. The French were so impressed by this exploit that they renamed the wood "*Bois de la Brigade de la Marine.*"

Americans Only Helped.

The American exploits around Chateau-Thierry were brilliant and helpful. By some writers, however, they have been unduly magnified and the claim has been made that the Americans saved Paris. This is claiming too much. The Americans stood across the road to Paris and helped to save the city, but the truth is that after they occupied their position the Germans made no really powerful attacks in that region. They had, in fact, gone about as far as they could safely until the mouth of the salient through which they had entered was widened. On June 9th, the Germans made a desperate and powerful effort against French positions on the west side of the salient. But the French were aware of the impending attack and had massed great forces to meet it. The French artillery inflicted heavy losses upon the charging infantry and though the Germans made some progress, in most places they were flung back. They managed to advance more than a mile along the Matz River, but a furious counter-attack led by General Mangin, who was again in active service, drove them back with a loss of many killed and wounded and many prisoners. For several days the battle continued and then finally died down. It was this French success which really put a limit to the third German offensive and saved Paris.

French Halt New Attack.

Americans Prove They Can Fight.

The behavior of the American troops around Cantigny and around Chateau-Thierry had been eagerly watched. French and British military men knew that the Americans, especially many of the officers, were comparatively lacking in training, while the general public in Allied countries had been influenced by the persistent German insistence that Americans would not fight. Up to this time only French and British troops, including some Colonials, had proven their ability to meet the Germans on equal terms. As Allied hope of victory now depended largely upon America, it will readily be understood that the Allies were vitally interested in American fighting prowess. Now their highest hopes were fully realized. In London and Paris stories were told of American valor and skill with the rifle, and even the Australians, who were not noted for gentleness, conceded that the Americans were good fighters but a bit rough. Even the Germans were being disillusioned. A captured letter spoke of the Americans as the "Devil-hounds."

Italians Stop Austrian Drive.

Meanwhile events favorable to the Allied cause had taken place in Italy. It had been certain that at some time the Teutons would launch a new offensive in that region. Italian power of resistance was uncertain, and should the Austro-Hungarians succeed in breaking through the Italian lines it might be necessary to send fresh British and French forces to that theatre of action. In the middle of June the Austro-Hungarians began an offensive in the Trentino and also along the Piave. Great anxiety existed in Allied countries over the result, for the disaster of the preceding year had not been forgotten. But this time there was no German army to open the way, and although the assailants managed to cross the Piave in a few places, they were soon held. Providential rains raised the Piave behind the Austrian forces that had crossed the river. The Italians counter-attacked and recovered the lost ground, inflicting such heavy losses that it was certain that the offensive could not soon be renewed. The importance of this Italian victory is not sufficiently emphasized in many accounts of the war. It lifted a great load off Foch's shoulders, for now he knew that he would not be compelled to send aid to the Italians and could make use of all his forces against the enemy in France.

German Dilemma.

A lull now occurred on the Western Front. In places the Allies carried out counter-attacks for limited objectives but undertook no general offensive. The great question was, Will the Germans attack again? They had in three great attacks driven three salients deep into the Allied lines, but they had accomplished nothing decisive and had suffered great losses. German man power was at such a low ebb that these losses could not be replaced, but Allied losses were being made good by the arrival of hundreds of thousands of fresh troops from a practically inexhaustible reservoir across the Atlantic. This much was certain: the Germans must either attack again or retreat to the positions from which they had issued in the spring, for the salients in which they stood were weakly fortified and to remain in them on the defensive would have been to court disaster. A retirement would have been a confession to the world that their great bid for a decision had failed. Such a retirement would have heartened the Allies and vastly disheartened the people of the Central Powers. Therefore Ludendorff, who was now the active head of the German forces, decided upon another drive. It was to be called the "*Friedensturm*," the storm that would bring peace.

Rheims Salient.

For a time the Germans considered attacking the British, but they ultimately chose the region of the Rheims salient, which lay to the eastward of the territory captured by the Germans in their last drive. At the apex of this salient was the town of Rheims, and the high terri-

tory called the Mountain of Rheims. By overrunning this salient the Germans would remove a danger to their own positions to westward and would broaden their front, giving them greater freedom of movement and making possible an attack upon Paris.

Allied Preparations.

The German offensives were of so tremendous a nature that it required much time to prepare for them. This time the delay was increased by a number of reasons, including a sort of grippe called "Flanders Fever," and to shortage of men and munitions. This time the Allies knew well in advance where the blow would fall and made careful preparations to meet it. Great numbers of guns were massed, and, in addition to large French forces and a few Italians, there were 300,000 Americans in the front lines or in immediate support. Tactics that had proved effective in meeting the German drive against the west side of the Marne salient were to be employed against this drive. The main feature of this plan was to hold the front line very lightly and concentrate most of the troops in the second and third lines. This method of "yielding defense," as it was called, caused the Germans to waste much of their force upon practically empty space, with the result that much of their power was exhausted by the time they reached the main defensive positions.

Quentin Roosevelt Killed.

Raids were made and airplanes sent out to collect information. On July 14th a number of American planes flew over the German lines on such a mission. One of the airmen was Quentin Roosevelt, youngest son of the ex-President. Earlier in the month the young aviator in his first flight had shot down a German plane. While protecting the observation planes, Quentin became involved in a duel with a German plane and was shot through the head. His plane fell in the German lines, and the Germans, finding his name in his pocket case, gave him an honorable burial. The news that his plane had not returned soon reached America, and for a time it was hoped that he had survived and had been captured, but this hope was presently dissipated by a German press report, describing the battle.

The Great Adventure.

The news was a bitter blow to his lion-hearted father, but in response to condolences from President Poincaré he said: "My only regret is that I am unable to fight beside my sons." There can be no question that his last great ambition had been thwarted, when President Wilson declined to accept his divisions of volunteers. "Only those are fit to live," he wrote in a poignant article called *The Great Adventure*, "who would not fear to die, and none are fit to die who have shrunk from the joy of life and the duty of life." He looked forward to visiting the grave with his wife when peace came but only Mrs. Roosevelt lived to make the trip. They decided not to have the body brought back to

America but to leave it on the field of glory. "Where the tree falls, there let it lie," said the ex-President.

Balestier's Great Services.

On the night of the day on which Quentin Roosevelt lost his life, Lieutenant Balestier of the French service, with four comrades, penetrated into the enemy trenches and captured prisoners from whom he learned that the Germans would open fire with their artillery ten minutes after midnight and that at quarter past four in the morning they would advance to the assault. This information was tremendously important. Word was speedily telephoned along the Allied line, and the Allied artillery opened a tremendous fire before the time set for the German guns to open. This bombardment decimated many of the German infantry organizations that were lying ready for the attack, and it also destroyed many of the German guns.

The German Attack.

It would have been well for the Germans had they given up the attack but they did not. At the time agreed upon, their artillery opened fire, and so heavy was the combined bombardment that the sound was heard at Paris. The sound was, in fact, so loud that most people believed it was caused by the barrage fire of anti-aircraft guns within the city; but those who rose from their beds could see on the northeast horizon a pale, flame-colored light. The German shells, many of them filled with poison gas, fell in great profusion upon the Allied positions near the front, and some of large calibre reached villages twenty and even twenty-five miles distant.

The Assault.

The German assault reached from far to the eastward of Rheims to Chateau-Thierry on the Marne, a distance of close to sixty miles. As their troops advanced, they were greeted with a heavy barrage of shells, which inflicted heavy losses. They carried the first line, however, with comparative ease, for the Allies followed their plan of a "yielding defense," leaving only a few men in the foremost positions. By the time the Germans reached the second line their momentum was largely exhausted. At the second line the defenders stood firm and in most places hurled the assailants back with heavy losses.

Rainbow Division and the "Black Watch."

To the east of Rheims the French and American forces were under the command of General Gouraud, a determined fighter who lost an arm earlier in the war in the Gallipoli campaign. Included in his army was the Forty Second or Rainbow Division, composed of units from almost all the states, and a regiment of colored troops, the "Black Watch," from New York City, commanded by Colonel William Hayward. Some days before Gouraud had issued an order to his troops, warning them of the impending attack, and exhorting them to stand firm. "You will fight," he said, "on the ground you have transformed by your hard work into redoubtable fortresses, which are invincible if the passages are properly guarded. The bombardment will be terrible,

UNFURLING RAINBOW DIVISION FLAG FOR FIRST TIME IN FRANCE

MOTOR TRANSPORT TROOPS IN FRANCE

but you will stand it without weakening. The assault will be violent, in clouds of smoke, dust and gas, but your position and armament are formidable. In your breasts beat free men's brave, strong hearts. Nobody will look behind nor recede a step. Each of you will have one thought—to kill, and to kill many until they cry 'Enough!' For this reason your General says you will break this assault, and it will be broken gloriously." Gouraud's Order.

Gouraud's army lived up to his expectations. In no place did the Germans break through the second line. After heavy fighting in which the Americans bore a brilliant part the German drive to the east of Rheims was completely stopped. Southwest of Rheims the Germans gained some ground and still further south, several of their divisions forced their way over the Marne. In front of the French troops they managed to hold their ground. The American troops in this region belonged mainly to the Third Division under Major General Bundy, but a considerable number from the Twenty-Eighth Division participated. Under the protection of a heavy artillery fire the Germans crossed the river in boats. In most places they forced the Americans back temporarily, but in one position, that held by the Thirty Eighth Infantry under Colonel Ulysses Grant McAlexander, they made no progress whatever. Colonel McAlexander, in anticipation of the attack, had fortified his position not only in front, but also on his flanks. His regiment with their rifles and machine-guns hurled back all the attacks and practically destroyed the Sixth German Grenadiers, and captured nearly 500 prisoners. "This regiment," said Pershing in his report, "wrote one of the most brilliant pages in our military history." And it might be added that Colonel Ulysses Grant McAlexander had performed a feat that would have won the hearty commendation of the still greater soldier after whom he had been named. Allied Resistance. McAlexander and the Thirty-Eighth.

On this day Major General Bundy was guilty of glorious military insubordination. The superior French command wished Bundy's force to remain in the position to which they had been driven, but this Bundy could not endure. To his superior he sent the following message: "We regret being unable on this occasion to follow the counsels of our masters, the French, but the American flag has been forced to retire. This is unendurable and none of our soldiers would understand their not being asked to do whatever is necessary to repair a situation which is humiliating to us, and unacceptable to our country's honor. We are going to counter-attack." The Americans did counter-attack so fiercely that within a few hours no living German was left south of the Marne in their front except those who had been taken prisoner. The news of these American exploits greatly encouraged the other defenders. Bundy's Insubordination.

SECTION VIII.—THE WAR MOVES TOWARD BERLIN.

Foch Prepares to Counter-Attack.

During the next two days the Germans were able to advance some distance up the Marne valley towards Epernay but elsewhere they could make little or no progress. The time had now come for which General Foch had long been waiting and he proceeded to pass from the defensive to the offensive. He hurriedly concentrated two armies on the west side of the Marne salient. These armies were commanded by two fighting generals, Mangin and Degoutte, and they included two fighting American divisions, the First and the Second, commanded respectively by Major Generals Summerall and Harbord. Harbord had recently been promoted for his success as commander of the Marines at Belleau Wood. The concentration was made so hurriedly that the Americans barely managed to reach their positions. In fact, part of the Second Division had not a minute to spare.

The Attack.

Happily much of the region in which the two armies were assembled was heavily wooded, and much of the troop movement had taken place at night. The Germans were totally unaware of the storm that was about to break. At dawn of the 18th, without any preliminary bombardment, the French and American troops, aided by many tanks, suddenly dashed forward upon the German lines behind a rolling barrage of shells. Taken completely by surprise, the Germans were at first unable to make any effective resistance. The Moroccan Division, perhaps the most noted offensive division in the French army, participated in the drive, but even it could not keep up with the eager Americans. The tanks aided greatly, especially against German machine-guns, and

American Prowess.

the German artillery, owing to the broken nature of the ground, did not prove very effective against the tanks, many of which were small and surprisingly swift. On the first day the assailants advanced in some places eight kilometers. By the end of the second day they had made still further progress and had taken 17,000 prisoners and 400 cannon, many of large calibre. In this offensive the two American divisions alone captured 7,000 prisoners and 100 guns.

The War Starts Towards Berlin.

This was the most considerable victory that the Allies had won on the Western Front since the first battle of the Marne. It marked the turning of the tide. The war ceased to move toward Paris and began to move toward Berlin. The significance of the success was speedily recognized in America, and the news that American troops had assumed the offensive was greeted with great rejoicing. In Germany an attempt was made to explain that reverses are bound to happen occasionally in connection with any great military operation. But the failure of

Reaction of the Defeat Upon the German People.

the offensive, and this new defeat caused much pessimism. After the war ended, Count von Hertling, the German Chancellor at the time of the battle, said that there had been "optimism on the 15th, but on the 18th even the most optimistic among us understood that all was lost—the history of the world was played out in those three days." Up to this time the Germans had hoped that Allied resistance would break down and they seemed to have believed that French morale was at a very low ebb. They seem to have underestimated the available American forces. According to the Crown Prince, he had reported to Grand Headquarters that there were forty American divisions in France, but his estimate was laughed at. According to him, the High Command thought that there were only fourteen divisions in France and that five of these were no good for fighting purposes. In reality, a million Americans were already on French soil.

Marne Salient Erased.

Fresh divisions were thrown into the counter-offensive and attacks were begun all around the Marne salient. The Germans were caught at a disadvantage. A stupendous disaster stared them in the face, for they had hundreds of thousands of troops and thousands of guns in the salient. By bitter fighting, however, they prevented the Allies from pinching off the salient until they had removed most of their troops and guns. They had to sacrifice, however, vast numbers of shells and immense quantities of war material. Altogether, the Allies in the whole offensive captured over 30,000 prisoners and 700 cannon.

American Divisions in the Fight.

In all, seven American divisions participated in this glorious victory. These were the First, Second, Third and Fourth of the regular army, the Forty-Second (the "Rainbow"), which had been transferred from east of Rheims, the Twenty-Sixth National Guard Division, made up of troops from New England, and the Twenty-Eighth, composed of National Guardsmen from Pennsylvania. Some of the divisions suffered very heavily. The First lost over 7,000 men, out of a fighting complement of only 12,000. The Twenty-Third regiment of the Second Division, which went into action with 3,400 men and 99 officers, lost 2,000 of that number but it took 2,200 Germans and killed many others.

Honors.

Great credit was given to General Foch for the victory. He was given the title of Field Marshal. Enthusiastic congratulations were showered upon the American troops by Mangin and other French Generals under whom they had served. General Pershing was given the Grand Cross of the Legion of Honor, and received two kisses from happy President Poincaré, who conferred the decoration. King George also conferred decorations upon Pershing and other American officers.

Ludendorff's Hope.

In his book published after the war General Ludendorff says that even after this defeat he did not give up hope of ultimate victory. He withdrew his troops beyond the Vesle River to enormously strong positions, and hoped that the Allies would make a further effort in that direction. But this was not part of Foch's plans. The great French Marshal's favorite saying was, however, "To make war is to attack." Having taken the offensive from his antagonists, he was determined not to lose it.

Haig Deceives the Enemy.

This time the British were to play the major rôle. The details were left to General Haig. In order to deceive the Germans, he caused German positions in Flanders to be heavily bombarded and saw to it that many trench raids took place in that sector, with Canadian troops conspicuous in some of these raids. The bombardment, the raids, and especially the presence of the Canadians, convinced the Germans that an offensive was imminent in Flanders, for it had not escaped them that in the British offensives, Canadians played an important part. Most of the Canadians, however, were really not in Flanders, but were concentrated in the region of the Marne salient. Strong British forces and some French troops were to participate in the attack in this region. Tanks in numbers beyond anything yet seen were assembled. Again there was no preliminary bombardment, but at 4:20 a. m. on the morning of August 8th the Allied artillery opened a tremendous fire from their guns and at the same moment the tanks and the infantry moved forward. The Germans were completely surprised. They were hampered by heavy mist that screened the tanks and advancing troops from view. On the first day the assailants advanced over seven miles and captured over 10,000 prisoners and several hundred guns. The losses of the assailants were slight, due partly to the German surprise and partly to the effective assistance given by the hundreds of tanks. Allied airplanes, flying low, aided considerably in the attack, and for the first time in more than three years British cavalry participated in the battle. During the next two weeks the Allies followed up their success with great energy and drove the Germans in some places back to the Hindenburg Line from which they had issued on their great offensive in March. Over 30,000 prisoners and 700 guns were among the spoils of victory.

Victory of August 8th.

"Germany's Black Day."

Up to this battle the German public and newspapers had preserved at least an apparently confident front, but this British victory cast a pall of gloom over the whole country. The *Deutsche-Zeitung* admitted that it was "the most serious reverse of the war." Ludendorff himself lost hope of military victory. In his book he calls the 8th of August "Germany's black day." At a conference a few days later with Hindenburg and Chancellor von Hertling, he bluntly said that the war

AMERICAN OUTPOST IN RUSSIA

THE AMERICAN WATCH ON THE RHINE

could no longer be won in military fashion. Henceforth "*durchalten*" —hold through—must again be the German watch word.

Vast Destruction.

German pessimism was increased by the submarine situation. In the period from February 1, 1917, to the end of July, 1917, the German submarines were sinking 640,000 tons of Allied and neutral shipping per month. It was clear that if this rate continued Great Britain would be cut off from supplies and forced to make peace, which would have meant that the Germans had won the war. During this period only a few American destroyers were in the war zone, and the Navy Department and Secretary Daniels refused to comply with Admiral Sims's urgent recommendation that as much as possible of our Navy should be sent to European waters in order to combat the submarine peril. During the next six months the American Navy gave moderate assistance and there was partial employment of the convoy system, and the sinkings fell to an average of 390,000 tons per month. During the remaining period of the war the American navy gave full coöperation and made possible a full use of the convoy system, and the losses fell to an average of 250,000 tons per month. In part this falling off was due to improved weapons, such as the depth bomb. Meanwhile Allied shipyards were very active, and in the summer of 1918 construction passed destruction, and it was reasonably clear that the submarines, although still troublesome, would not prove the decisive factor.

Submarines Beaten

British Victories.

Foch was determined to give the enemy no rest and struck now here, now there. The British armies, especially, won notable successes. Thanks to the tanks and to their superiority in artillery the British were able with comparative ease to capture positions that two years before would have been almost impregnable. Perhaps the greatest feat of this character took place on September 2d when the British and Canadians in two hours broke through the Drocourt-Queant Switch line east of Arras, taking over 16,000 prisoners and about 200 guns. To have broken through such a line two years before would have required weeks if not months of effort. By the middle of September the Germans were back practically in the positions along the Hindenburg Line where they had stood before their great offensive in March. In that time they had lost over 2,500 guns, 200,000 prisoners, and many hundreds of thousands in killed and wounded. These losses could not be replaced. German morale was at a low ebb. Their main hope was that they might be able to hold the Hindenburg Line until winter brought them a breathing space.

America's First Independent Effort.

In some of the operations above described, American troops took part. In the second week of September a newly created American army made their first independent attack. Long before it had been settled that our first independent effort should be directed against the

St. Mihiel salient which had been driven by the Germans deep into the French eastern line in October, 1914. At the apex of this salient on the Meuse River stood the town of St. Mihiel, whence the salient derived its name. The salient cut the Nancy-Toul-Verdun Railway and barred the way to an attack upon Metz or down the Meuse. In the spring of 1915 the French had tried desperately to erase the salient but after heavy losses had failed.

St. Mihiel Salient Taken.

For the effort Pershing concentrated about 600,000 men. The French and British loaned many cannon and airplanes. Careful preparations were made and an immense number of shells were used against the enemy's works. Pershing had said after his arrival in France that he intended to see to it that in this war there should not be any Bull Run, and he had undertaken the attack only when he felt certain of being able to succeed. After a tremendous cannonade lasting four hours, the infantry charged in the early morning of September 12th. Pershing had hoped to cut across the base of the salient and make large captures of prisoners and guns. But the Germans had learned that an attack was impending and had begun to evacuate the salient. Their resistance was consequently not so bitter as it otherwise would have been. Before all had escaped, however, troops from the First Division coming up from the south, and troops from the Twenty-Sixth Division coming down from the north, met and closed the way to further retreat. Sixteen thousand prisoners were taken, together with 443 guns and large stores of war material. The loss of the assailants was only 7,000.

Advantages Gained.

The German High Command insisted that they had evacuated the salient "according to plan," but the reverse was too considerable to be thus explained away. By wiping out the salient the Americans had made possible an attack upon the great fortified city of Metz or an offensive down the Meuse Valley. From their nearest positions they were within a few miles of the nearest fortress, and from a hill could see a considerable part of the city.

Allied Rejoicings.

The American success at St. Mihiel caused much rejoicing in Allied countries. The London *Times* said: "More was destroyed at St. Mihiel than a German salient. General Pershing shattered at a blow the monstrous web of lies which has sustained the pretense that the immense weight and the almost illimitable resources of the United States would be of little or no account in the European field of war. He has shown in one brilliant day that the Americans are as quick and apt to learn the art of war as they have been to develop the pursuits of peace."

Bulgaria Beaten.

Foch did not confine his attention to the Western Front, but arranged for the Allied armies in all the theatres of war to attack. Three

days after the Americans charged into the St. Mihiel salient the Allied armies in the Balkans, commanded by General Franchet d'Esperey, moved against the enemy. Three Bulgarian armies, an Austrian army, and a fourth army composed of Bulgarian troops under German command, held a line running from the Adriatic across Albania and Macedonia to the Ægean to the east of the Chalcidice Peninsula. The Allied forces were very composite, consisting of French, British, Greeks, Italians, Servians, and Czecho-Slovaks. For almost three years the Servians had been exiled from their homes, and longed to return to them. When the attack began they fought with the greatest desperation and performed prodigies of valor. Although aided by strong natural defenses, the Bulgars, weary of the war, displayed less determination than they had earlier in the conflict. The Allies broke through the Bulgarian lines on a wide front, taking thousands of prisoners and many guns. British and Greek forces invaded Bulgaria, while the Servians and French pushed up the Vardar Valley towards old Servia. King Ferdinand of Bulgaria sent appeals for aid to Vienna and Berlin, but in vain. His people realized that the situation was hopeless, and to avoid the ravaging of their country, the Bulgarians on September 27th asked for an armistice. This armistice was signed two days later, and it amounted to a practical surrender of Bulgaria. She agreed to withdraw from the war and to permit the Allies to transport troops through Bulgaria for operations against the Turks.

Results of the Victory.

Of the four Central Powers Bulgaria had been the last to enter the war and she was also the first to withdraw. By her withdrawal Turkey was once more cut off from her Teutonic Allies, and large forces were freed for use in other fields. Northward hurried the homesick Servian troops. Servian and Montenegrin peasants rose against the invader. Soon not a single Teuton remained south of the Danube except as a prisoner. It became necessary for Austria again to defend her southern frontier and it was reasonably certain that Roumania would presently re-enter the war on the Allied side.

Situation in Palestine.

A few days after the Allies began their drive in the Balkans General Allenby's army in Palestine took the offensive. The Turkish army in that theatre of action was commanded by Field Marshal von Sanders, a German officer. The Turkish line ran from the sea eastward to the Jordan. Allenby's army, which consisted of British and Colonial troops and a few French, was aided by a large force of Arabs, commanded by the King of the Hedjaz; this force operated mainly to the east of the Jordan. As Allenby was well equipped with airplanes while the Turks had few, he was able to keep well informed regarding the enemy's movements and to prevent aerial reconnaissance of his own.

He pretended to make a concentration on his right and center, but, in reality, massed heavy forces, including great numbers of cavalry, on his left near the sea.

Turkish Army Destroyed.

On the 19th of September the attack was begun, and Allenby's troops soon broke through the gap, passed over the Plain of Sharon, and got into the Turkish rear. Nazareth and other towns famous in Biblical history were taken, and the railroad to Damascus was cut. Attacked on every side and also from the air, the Turkish army soon became no more than a mob of frightened fugitives. Marshal von Sander succeeded in escaping, but 75,000 of his men, all of his artillery and practically all of his military supplies were taken. Allenby's troops hurried northward taking Damascus and other places and in the middle of October cut the Berlin to Bagdad railroad at Aleppo. The Turkish army in northern Mesopotamia was cut off from its home and soon surrendered. These successes and the defeat of Bulgaria made certain the early withdrawal of Turkey from the war.

Turks in Mesopotamia Surrender.

Foch Decides to Continue Offensive.

By the middle of September the Germans were occupying practically the positions that they had held at the beginning of their great offensive in the spring. Difference of opinion existed among Allied military leaders as to whether it would be better to attempt to break through these positions at once or wait until the full strength of America could be brought to play next year. In case an attack should be made upon the Hindenburg Line and it should fail, the defeat would greatly discourage the Allied peoples and might cause some of them to desire a peace by negotiation. But if the Germans were given a breathing spell they would probably be able to make immensely stronger fortifications. Happily, Foch decided to make the effort. At the same time the Allied peoples were led to believe that the great decisive conflict would be fought next year. Foch's decision necessitated the use of many American troops that were not yet thoroughly trained, but it is easy to see now that his decision was an eminently wise one. Multitudes of lives were doubtless saved, to say nothing of many billions of dollars.

The Plan.

The Allied plan was for Belgian, British and French troops under King Albert, to attack in Flanders, for British and French armies to assail the Hindenburg Line in front of Cambrai, St. Quentin and Laôn, and for an American army to drive northward down the Meuse Valley and through the Argonne Forest, towards one of the two main lines of communication of the German troops with the Fatherland. The series of engagements resulting from these attacks is generally called the Battle of the Hindenburg Line.

BAVARIAN SOLDIERS

FRENCH GUNNERS IN THE ARGONNE

Victories in Flanders and Belgium.

The Germans were growing constantly weaker in man power. Since they must hold some positions with comparatively weak forces, military considerations dictated that these weakly held positions should be those in Flanders and Belgium. When King Albert's army began its drive on September 28th, aided by many tanks, they were able in a single day to overrun more territory than the British had conquered in their great drive of 1917 at a cost of hundreds of thousands of casualities. British warships aided in the offensive by bombarding German positions along the seacoast. The Germans were forced to evacuate Dixmudie, Roulers and Lens, and in the middle of the month relinquished their hold upon the Belgian seacoast.

British Armies.

In the same period the British First, Third and Fourth armies began mighty attacks upon the German lines further southward. An American army corps, the Second, commanded by Major-General Read, was attached to the Fourth Army. It consisted of the Twenty-Seventh under Major-General O'Ryan and the Thirtieth under Major-General Lewis. This British offensive was the mightiest of all, and steady progress was made until a complete breakthrough was finally effected.

The American Task.

The task before the Americans was a tremendous one. With the aid of French forces on their left they must conquer the gloomy, rugged region known as the Argonne Forest, and must master the German lines between that Forest and the Meuse River further east. In their immediate front lay two zones of defense, the Hagen Stellung and the Folker Stellung, the two making up what was called by the Allies the Hindenburg Line. Further northward lay the very strong Kriemhilde Stellung and beyond this the incompleted Freya Stellung. The German defenses had been carefully prepared and were kept supplied with munitions by many roads and light railways.

Preparations.

Nearly 4,000 guns and nine divisions were concentrated for the attack. Many of the guns were manned by French artillerymen, and nearly all had been obtained from the French. The divisions were the 77th, 28th, 35th, 91st, 37th, 79th, 33rd, 80th, and 4th; six of them were going into battle for the first time. There was a shortage of both horse and motor transport and of airplanes and tanks; all the tanks used had been obtained from the French. Not one American-made tank reached the fighting front. Most of the machine-guns were French.

The First Attack.

The concentration had been made very quietly, and the Germans were misled into believing that an attack was about to be made upon Metz. The lines in front of the Americans were held by only four German divisions, all comparatively weak. The American artillery preparation began at 2:30 in the morning of September 26th, and

five hours later the American infantry went "over the top" with a wild yell. The American commanders hoped to be able to carry the Hindenburg Line very speedily and to assault the Kriemhilde Stellung before the Germans had time to bring up reinforcements. Everywhere they made progress, but their extreme hope could not be realized because of determined German resistance on the ridges and in the woods about Montfaucon. Had the troops been veterans, more might have been accomplished, but mistakes were inevitably made, and in some places officers did not measure up to their responsibilities. In one day, however, the troops advanced from three to seven miles and took 5,000 prisoners. The French to the West of the Argonne Forest also made good progress and took 7,000 prisoners. Next day Montfaucon was taken, but the resistance there and at some other places had enabled the Germans to bring up reinforcements to hold the Kriemhilde Stellung.

The "Lost Battalion."

Thus began the greatest battle in American history. In the last days of September the Americans continued to push forward, taking German positions, moving forward their own artillery and fighting a bitter battle against machine-gun nests. Progress was made in the Argonne Forest but only against bitter resistance. On October 2d a battalion of the 77th Division and a few other troops from other organizations were cut off from the main American forces and were surrounded in a ravine. After subjecting the detachment to heavy machine-gun and shell fire the Germans called upon the survivors to surrender, but Major Whittlesey, who commanded the Americans, consigned the Germans to a hotter region and continued the fighting. After five days the survivors, amounting to about half the original number, were rescued by a determined advance. Meanwhile, the Americans reached the Kriemhilde Stellung in some places, and by the 10th the Argonne Forest had been cleared of the enemy.

Numbers Used on Each Side.

Worn-out divisions had been replaced by fresh ones. The Germans, too, had brought up many more troops, for it was vitally necessary for them to hold the Americans at bay and prevent them from reaching the line of communication in the region of Sedan. Altogether the Germans used in the Meuse-Argonne battle forty-six divisions, but it should be remembered that a German division was only half as numerous as an American division, and these divisions had been so depleted by losses that some of them contained only a small fraction of their normal number. The Americans used in this battle twenty-one divisions and the French four. The German troops have been estimated at as high as 396,000, but their actual number was probably

considerably smaller. The Americans used 631,405, the French about 138,000, making a total of three-quarters of a million. From these figures it can be seen that about a million men engaged in the conflict.

Corporal York.

During most of October the Americans were hacking away at the Kriemhilde Stellung. The battle was an inferno of machine-guns, shell fire and poison gas. Positions were taken, retaken, lost, taken again. Many heroic deeds were done, perhaps the most celebrated being that performed by Corporal York, a red-headed Tennessee mountaineer. When the war began, York belonged to a religious denomination that objected to war. Nevertheless, he enlisted. On October 8th, almost unaided, he captured some German machine-guns and killed more than a dozen of the enemy. On his return home he was given much publicity and many presents, and was awarded the Distinguished Service Cross and the Congressional Medal of Honor. By the end of October the Americans were through the Kriemhilde Stellung in most places. Fresh divisions had been put in to take the place of worn-out divisions, but the Germans with their reserves exhausted were unable to do likewise. Furthermore, the last German line of defense was unfinished and comparatively weak.

Final Advance.

The rest of the battle has been well summarized by General Pershing in his report: "With comparatively well rested divisions, the final advance in the Meuse-Argonne front was begun on November 1st. Our increased artillery force acquitted itself magnificently in support of the advance, and the enemy broke before the determined infantry, which by its persistent fighting of the past weeks and the dash of this attack, had overcome his will to resist. The 3d Corps took Ancreville, Doulcon and Andevanne, and the 5th Corps took Landres and St. Georges and pressed through successive lines of resistance to Bayonville and Chénéry. On the 2nd the 1st Corps joined in the movement, which now became an impetuous onslaught that could not be stayed.

Strategical Goal Reached.

"On the 3rd, advance troops surged forward in pursuit, some by motor trucks, while the artillery pressed along the country roads close behind. The 1st Corps reached Authe and Châtillon-sur-Bar, the 5th Corps, Fosse and Nouart, and the 3rd Corps, Halles, penetrating the enemy's line to a depth of twelve miles. Our large-calibre guns had advanced and were skillfully brought into position to fire upon the important lines at Montmedy, Longuyon and Conflans. Our 3rd Corps crossed the Meuse on the 5th, and the other corps, in the full confidence that the day was theirs, eagerly cleared the way of machine-guns as they swept northward, maintaining complete coördination

throughout. On the 6th, a division of the 1st Corps reached a point on the Meuse opposite Sedan, twenty-five miles from our line of departure. The strategical goal which was our highest hope was gained. We had cut the enemy's main line of communications, and nothing but surrender or an armistice could save his army from complete disaster."

Gains and Losses.

The battle had lasted forty-seven days and the Americans had used nearly three and a half million shells. They had taken 16,000 Germans, 468 guns, 2,864 machine-guns. The American losses were 115,529 including nearly 9,000 missing, some of them taken prisoners. These losses were about two and a half times the total Union and Confederate losses at Gettysburg. The German losses have been estimated at about 100,000, but, as they fought in strong positions, the number may have been somewhat smaller. The following divisions participated in this Meuse-Argonne battle: 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 26th, 28th, 29th, 32nd, 33rd, 35th, 37th, 42nd, 77th, 78th, 79th, 80th, 89th, 90th, and 91st. Eight divisions were thrown into the inferno twice.

Austria Beaten.

Bulgaria and Turkey had been beaten, Germany was in retreat and now came the turn of Austria-Hungary, the Power that had begun the war. On October 24th the Italians, aided by three British, two French and one Czecho-Slovak divisions and one American regiment, began an offensive along the Piave River and on the Trentino front. Discouraged by the news from other battlefields, the Austro-Hungarians made weak resistance, Austria-Hungary itself was falling to pieces, and the Slavic subjects of the House of Hapsburg were rising in rebellion. In a few days the Allied armies broke through the Austro-Hungarian positions, taking multitudes of prisoners and causing the survivors to flee in wild disorder. Meanwhile two gallant Italian officers on the night of October 3rd swam into the harbor of Pola and attached a torpedo to the Austrian flagship and sank her. By November 3rd the Allies had captured not less than 300,000 prisoners and 5,000 cannon, and Austrian representatives had been compelled to sign in the field an armistice that amounted to surrender.

Last of the Hapsburgs.

Meanwhile Hungary had risen in revolt and had renounced Emperor Charles. The Emperor and his wife were at Schönbrunn near Vienna. The revolutionary outbreak soon spread to Austria, and the Emperor was forced to abdicate on November 11th. The royal family took refuge in a castle in Switzerland. The Dual Monarchy broke into fragments. After the war Charles made two vain efforts to regain his throne and in 1922 died in Madeira, whither the Allies had exiled him.

SECTION IX.—THE ARMISTICE.

Germans Ask an Armistice.

The Allied victories on the Western Front and in the Balkans and Palestine caused the Central Powers to make peace overtures. Count von Hertling, who had succeeded Von Bethmann-Hollweg as Chancellor in 1917, resigned to make way for Prince Maximilian of Baden. Two Socialists were given positions in the Cabinet, and an effort was made to convince the outside world that there had been a transformation in the nature of the German government. On October 4th Prince Maximilian sent through the Swiss government to President Wilson a request for an armistice, and stated that the German government was ready to accept as a basis of peace the President's message to Congress of January 8, 1918, and his later terms, especially those contained in a speech of September 27th. The message of January 8th contained the famous "Fourteen Points," which were as follows:

Text of the "Fourteen Points."

"I. Open covenants of peace, openly arrived at, after which there shall be no private international understandings of any kind, but diplomacy shall proceed always frankly and in public view.

"II. Absolute freedom of navigation upon the seas, outside territorial waters, alike in peace and in war, except as the seas may be closed in whole or in part by international action for the enforcement of international covenants.

"III. The removal, so far as possible, of all economic barriers and the establishment of an equality of trade conditions among all the nations consenting to the peace and associating themselves for its maintenance.

"IV. Adequate guarantees given and taken that national armaments will be reduced to the lowest point consistent with domestic safety.

"V. Free, open-minded, and absolutely impartial adjustment of all colonial claims based upon a strict observance of the principle that in determining all such questions of sovereignty the interests of the populations concerned must have equal weight with the equitable claims of the Government whose title is to be determined.

"VI. The evacuation of all Russian territory, and such a settlement of all questions affecting Russia as will secure the best and freest coöperation of the other nations of the world in obtaining for her an unhampered and unembarrassed opportunity for the independent determination of her own political development and national policy and assure her of a sincere welcome into the society of free nations under institutions of her own choosing; and, more than a welcome, assistance

also of every kind that she may need and may herself desire. The treatment accorded Russia by her sister nations in the months to come will be the acid test of their good-will, of their comprehension of her needs as distinguished from their own interests, and of their intelligent and unselfish sympathy.

"VII. Belgium, the whole world will agree, must be evacuated and restored, without any attempt to limit the sovereignty which she enjoys in common with all other free nations. No other single act will serve as this will serve to restore confidence among the nations in the laws which they have themselves set and determined for the government of their relations with one another. Without this healing act the whole structure and validity of international law is forever impaired.

"VIII. All French territory should be freed, and the invaded portions restored, and the wrong done to France by Prussia in 1871 in the matter of Alsace-Lorraine which has unsettled the peace of the world for nearly fifty years, should be righted, in order that peace may once more be made secure in the interest of all.

"IX. A readjustment of all the frontiers of Italy should be effected along clearly recognizable lines of nationality.

"X. The peoples of Austria-Hungary, whose place among the nations we wish to see safeguarded and assured, should be accorded the first opportunity of autonomous development.

"XI. Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro should be evacuated; occupied territories restored; Servia accorded free and secure access to the sea; and the relations of the several Balkan States to one another determined by friendly counsel along historically established lines of allegiance and nationality; and international guarantees of the political and economic independence and territorial intergrity of the several Balkan States should be entered into.

"XII. The Turkish portions of the present Ottoman Empire should be assured a secure sovereignty, but the other nationalities which are now under Turkish rule should be assured an undoubted security of life and an absolutely unmolested opportunity of autonomous development, and the Dardanelles should be permanently opened as a free passage to the ships and commerce of all nations under international guarantees.

"XIII. An independent Polish State should be erected which should include the territories inhabited by indisputable Polish populations, which should be assured a free and secure access to the sea, and whose political and economic independence and territorial integrity should be guaranteed by international covenant.

"XIV. A general association of nations must be formed under specific covenants for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of

political independence and territorial integrity to great and small States alike."

Basis for the Peace.

In many quarters it was believed that the German reason for applying to Wilson was that they believed he would be more lenient than would the other Allied leaders. Repeated exchanges took place during October. Meanwhile the military situation from the German point of view rapidly grew worse. In the end the terms of the Armistice were left to the Allied Supreme War Council, among whose members were Field Marshals Foch and Haig, General Tasker H. Bliss, and Premiers Clemenceau, Lloyd George and Orlando. In a final note of November 5th President Wilson stated that the Allies, though accepting the Fourteen Points and other pronouncements as a general basis for the peace, would reserve to themselves freedom as to the subject of the "freedom of the Seas" and would insist that the requirement that "invaded territories must be restored as well as evacuated and freed" must be interpreted as meaning "that compensation will be made by Germany for all damage done to the civilian population of the Allies and their property by the aggressions of Germany by land, by sea, and from air."

The Armistice.

On November 8th German representatives met General Foch and other Allied leaders in a railway car at Rethondes. At five o'clock on November 11th, an Armistice was finally signed, which was to take effect at eleven o'clock of that day. The Armistice required the Germans to evacuate all invaded countries and retire to a line ten miles east of the Rhine. They must surrender 25,000 machine-guns, 5,000 cannon, 1,700 airplanes, 5,000 locomotives, 150,000 railroad cars and 5,000 motor trucks. The Allied forces were to occupy all Germany west of the Rhine, and bridgeheads at Cologne, Coblenz and Mayence. Germany must release all her prisoners, but German prisoners were to remain in Allied hands until peace had been concluded. The Germans must surrender ten battleships, six battle-cruisers, eight light cruisers, fifty destroyers and all their submarines, and German naval bases were to be dismantled under Allied supervision. Fulfillment of these terms would leave the Germans in such a condition that they could not renew the war. The end of the bloodiest conflict in all history has been described by an eyewitness in the following words:

Severe Terms.

The End of It.

"While one minute before eleven it would have meant death to show oneself above shelter, not more than a minute after the hour the rolling plain was alive with cheering, shouting, care-free men. Soon both Germans and Americans were seen moving carelessly along that narrow stretch of ground they had so fiercely been fighting over, some of them

shy and awkward in manner, like embarrassed schoolboys. This first advance was followed by offers from the Americans to the Germans of cigarettes, chocolate, and chewing-gum, and from the Germans offers of hot coffee, bread, and sausages. Orders forbidding fraternizing had been strict, but the novelty of the situation overcame prudence, and doughboys surreptitiously visited German dugouts. Along the barbed wire at a road crossing there soon began a brisk barter in souvenirs, the Germans bewildered by the number of Americans who spoke German. At Stenay Americans had picked their way across the flooded river, entered and delivered the town at the very moment when the fighting ended. In the rear everyone knew that the war was to stop at 11 o'clock, but in the front line no one except the officers knew. Doughboys knew nothing except their orders were to attack. The Americans fought to the last minute. At 10.40, at 10:50, at 10:55, they were still fighting. Everywhere on the line in France was the same sudden and profound silence as the hour struck and guns for the first time ceased the terrible chorus from the North Sea to Switzerland.

Calm and Desolation.

"Over hills in the east which had been the scene of bloody warfare almost constantly since the conflict began, and the scene of perhaps the world's most bitter battle where the Crown Prince had so long tried to take Verdun, there fell an almost unearthly calm. Where the roar of a million shells had often torn the air, one could have heard a sparrow twitter had the war left any sparrows there. Torn, twisted, and tortured was that land. Of all the woods no tree was left whole; of pretty villages only blackened and stark bits of moss-covered and shattered stones; of roads there was not a trace. Somber shadow and silence were over all and would have seemed ominous had one not known it was harmless now. Soon the landscape was filled with cheering men. No Fourth of July in the United States ever saw such fireworks as threw red, green, and blue streaks across that foggy sky. Far away was poor, torn, suffering Verdun, now suddenly turned into a place of victory. Gathering darkness that night hid its wounds and one saw the French tricolor and the Stars and Stripes flying from housetops and parapets made visible by searchlights. At the top of the grizzled fortress walls a band, half French and half Yankee, played all the tunes it knew. Through the streets marched rejoicing Yankees and their Allies."

German Fleet Surrenders.

The German submarines, 129 in all, were surrendered at Harwich in accordance with the terms of the Armistice. On the 21st of November most of the German above-water fleet sailed between two lines of Allied warships off the Firth of Forth, and were then sent to Scapa

"CALAMITY JANE," LAST GUN FIRED ON THE AMERICAN FRONT.

Flow in the Orkneys. The Allied fleet was commanded by Admiral Sir David Beatty, and, besides British vessels, it included a French armored cruiser and two destroyers and five American dreadnoughts. When the terms of the treaty had been made known to the Germans, but before the treaty had been signed, the crews of the German ships scuttled many of them. The Allied governments then announced that the value of these ships so destroyed would be added to the German indemnity. In reality, the Germans had done their enemies a good turn, for the distribution of these ships threatened to cause hard feelings between the Allies.

New Drive Planned.

Foch had planned a new drive eastward into Lorraine. It was to be made by the American Second Army under Lieutenant-General Bullard, and by a very large force of French under General Mangin. Preliminary operations were begun, and the main blow was to have been struck on November 14th, three days after hostilities ceased. The German forces in that region were weak, and there can be little question but that the Allied drive would have gone through their lines like a hot knife through butter. Such a victory, following those already gained, would no doubt completely have demoralized the German army, and with the Americans in control of the line of communication at Sedan, the greatest debâcle in military history would have followed. After the war Marshal Foch admitted that he was tempted to continue the conflict until this supreme victory was won. But Foch was a man of sensibility. He had himself lost a son and a son-in-law in the conflict, and rather than see more bloodshed he deprived himself of the pleasure that such a victory would have given him as a military commander.

Kaiser and Crown Prince.

The Kaiser and the Crown Prince fled to Holland. The Kaiser was given a residence in the chateau of Count Bentinck at Amerongen. The Crown Prince was interned on an island in the Zuider Zee. There he remained for a few years but ultimately returned to Germany and took up his residence upon an estate in Silesia. On November 28, 1918, the Kaiser formally abdicated the throne, and a week later the Crown Prince renounced all his rights to the crown of Prussia and the Imperial crown. A demand was made upon Holland for the surrender of the ex-Kaiser, but the Dutch government replied that under international law he was entitled to the right of asylum. Doubtless a show of force would have caused the Dutch to surrender the former ruler, but no steps in this direction were taken. Thus William owed his safety to that international law which he had so often violated, and that he had once cynically declared had ceased to exist. The truth

is, also, that after they had had time for reflection most of the rulers in the Allied countries realized that perhaps it would be better to allow him to remain in exile.

The Sons of the Kaiser and the Sons of Roosevelt.

In the Imperial Palace at Potsdam vast stores of food were found after the revolution. It was clear that while the German people were half starved, the Imperial family had wanted for nothing. Throughout the war the members of that family had taken good care of themselves, and not one of the Kaiser's five sons had been killed in battle. Comparison was frequently made between the cautious behavior of these princes and the course followed by the four sons of another great world figure, Theodore Roosevelt. Roosevelt himself wished to go to the war; in fact it was his ambition to be killed on the field of battle, but the opportunity was denied him. Theodore Roosevelt, Jr., fought throughout the conflict and was seriously wounded, as was his brother Archibald. Kermit, his father's companion in the trips to Africa and South America, saw much service in Mesopotamia and also in France but passed through unscathed. Quentin was killed in battle.

The Kaiser in Exile.

William's greatest ancestor, Frederick the Great, carried poison with him during the Seven Years' War and was determined not to be captured by his enemies or to survive the destruction of his country. It was felt by many that it would have been more fitting for William to have been shot down in some desperate charge. Instead he went to Holland and lived there in luxury upon the proceeds from his vast personal estates in Germany. Ultimately he purchased a château at Doorn and there lived in luxury and surrounded by a certain amount of state, engaged in the writing of his memoirs and no doubt in repinings. His popularity in Germany fell to a low ebb when he deserted the sinking ship, nor was his popularity increased when a year after the death of the ex-Kaiserin he married a German widow, the Princess Hermine, who was already the mother of several children.

Ebert.

On the day that the Kaiser fled Prince Maximilian of Baden turned over the Chancellorship to a Socialist, Frederick Ebert, and a provisional government was created with Ebert at the head. After the formal renunciation to the throne by William and the Crown Prince the Ebert government called for the election of a National Assembly, chosen by all Germans over twenty years of age irrespective of sex. This Assembly was to determine the country's future political institutions.

Spartacan Revolts.

The provisional government was opposed on the one side by the Junkers and Militarists who wished to bring about a reaction, and on

INAUGURATION OF PRESIDENT PAUL VON HINDENBURG

the other by the Communists, commonly called Spartacans, who wished to carry out a more thoroughgoing social and economic revolution of the Bolshevist type. The chief leaders of the Spartacans were Karl Liebknecht, Rosa Luxemburg and Kurt Eisner. Eisner succeeded in making himself Premier of Bavaria, but he was forcibly overthrown and he himself was killed. In Berlin, in December and again in January the Spartacans made desperate efforts to seize control, and bloody street fighting took place in the capital. In the last revolt the Spartacans were put down with great severity, many of those taken prisoner being immediately executed. Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg hid themselves but were captured on the night of January 15th. They were taken from their guards by a mob and were killed. Spartacan revolts at Cuxhaven, Bremen and other places were also put down. In March a new outbreak took place in Berlin, but it was suppressed after more than a thousand people had been killed or wounded. Minister of War Noske, who ruled with an iron hand, executed many of the captured Spartacans.

National Assembly.

Meanwhile elections to the National Assembly had taken place in January. Neither the Spartacans nor the Reactionaries won many seats; the Majority Socialists and other moderate parties proved most successful. Included in the membership were twenty-eight women. On February 6, 1919, the first meeting was held at Weimar in the beautiful Court Theatre. In his speech to the Assembly Premier Ebert said in his first sentence: "We are done forever with princes and nobles, by the grace of God." On February 11th the National Assembly adopted a provisional constitution for the "Republican Empire." Philipp Scheidemann became Chancellor, with a coalition Ministry supported by the Socialist, Centrist and Democratic parties.

SECTION X.—SIDELIGHTS ON THE CONFLICT.

Nine-Tenths of all Mankind in the War.

In the end all the great powers of the world and most of the smaller ones were involved in the conflict. Twenty-eight nations participated, embracing more than nine-tenths of the entire population of the world. In all, the Allies mobilized a total of nearly forty million men, the Central Powers nearly twenty million.

In a book entitled *War Costs and Their Financing*, Professor E. L. Bogart estimates that the direct costs of the war were as follows:

Direct War Costs.

Great Britain	$44,029,011,868
United States	32,080,266,968
Canada	1,665,576,032
Australia	1,423,208,040
New Zealand	378,750,000
South African Union	300,000,000
India	601,279,000
Crown Colonies and Dependencies	125,000,000
France	25,812,782,800
Russia in Europe	22,593,950,000
Italy	12,313,998,000
Belgium	1,154,467,914
Servia	399,400,000
Roumania	1,600,000,000
Greece	270,000,000
Japan	40,000,000
Other Entente Allies	500,000,000
Total Expenditure by Entente Allies	$145,287,690,622
Germany	$40,150,000,000
Austria-Hungary	20,622,960,600
Turkey	1,430,000,000
Bulgaria	815,200,000
Total Expenditure by Central Powers	$63,018,160,600
Grand total	$208,305,851,222
Deduct for duplications in the way of loans by one state to another	$22,072,214,125
Net Total of Direct Expenditures	$186,233,637,097

Indirect and Total Costs.

To these direct costs must be added vast sums for interest on war debts, the grand total of which will doubtless equal if not surpass the original expenditure. There must be added also the indirect costs. Professor Bogart estimates the value of the lives of soldiers lost during the war at $33,551,276,280, and of civilians at the same sum. He estimates the value of property loss on land at $29,960,000,000 and on sea at $6,800,000,000; the loss in production during the war at $45,000,000, the costs of war relief at $1,000,000, the cost to neutral nations at $1,750,000,000. He estimates the total indirect costs at $151,612,552,560 and this sum added to the net total of direct expenditures gives a grand total of $337,846,189,657.

Loss of Life.

A Swedish society which studied the cost of the war to Europe in terms of human life estimated the total war casualities at 9,818,000;

the increase in deaths among the civilian population as a result of the war at 15,130,000,000, and the decline in births at 20,210,000, making a total loss of population in Europe of 35,380,000.

Fiat Paper Money.

A striking feature of the World War period was the issuance by most of the European belligerents of vast sums in paper money. Early in the war countries like Germany, Austria-Hungary, France, Italy and Russia began making these paper issues, which were inconvertible into gold. The value of the paper money, of course, depreciated, and this tendency was increased by the printing of still greater sums. Gold disappeared from circulation, and even silver change was hoarded by the people. Prices of goods in paper money rose as the standard depreciated. The paper money issued by some of the states ultimately became totally worthless. By the end of the war the German mark, whose par value was 23.8 cents, had fallen to about seven cents. In the years that followed incredible sums were issued. In the summer of 1923, $7.00 in American money could be exchanged for 4,000,000,000 paper marks. A meal for two in a restaurant amounted to 1,500,000,000 marks, and the tip to 400,000,000, altogether about $3.00 in American money. By November 30, 1923, the issue had run up to 400.¼ quintillions. A million mark note was worth little more than the paper on which it was printed. In an attempt to stabilize the German currency the Renten mark, based on enforced mortgages, was introduced.

United States.

In the United States there were no issues of inconvertible paper and the gold standard was maintained. There was, however, great expansion in Federal Reserve notes, and this inflation was partly the cause of extremely high prices and the orgy of speculation that followed the war. Great Britain issued comparatively little paper money. She was ultimately unable to maintain the gold standard but returned to it in 1924.

Gold Flows to the United States.

The great inflation in the currency and increased costs of goods, due partly to this inflation, partly to the greater expense of producing them, reacted disastrously upon those people with fixed incomes. In Germany, Austria, Hungary and some other countries such persons were sometimes reduced to a condition of starvation; on the other hand, wage earners in many countries were able to demand and obtain wages higher than any ever before seen in history. Every belligerent country strove anxiously to retain a large gold reserve, but for the most part in vain. Over half of the world's gold supply was ultimately concentrated in the United States, as a consequence of payment by the Entente Allies for war supplies. Lacking sufficient gold, the belligerents turned to the long despised silver. As a consequence of this demand, an American silver dollar which twenty years before contained

less than fifty cents worth of bullion could now be melted down and the bullion sold at a small profit.

American Losses.

When the armistice was signed, two million Americans had landed in France, and as many more were in training camps at home. Twenty-nine divisions were sufficiently engaged in battle to have men killed and wounded. The total number of Americans killed or mortally wounded was 50,572. About 70,000 more died as the result of accident or disease, most of them as a result of the awful epidemic of influenza that swept over Europe and the United States in the last months of the war. The following table summarizes the losses in killed and wounded and the divisions that went into action:

Division	Killed	Wounded
2	4,419	20,657
1	4,205	19,141
3	3,102	15,052
28	2,531	13,746
42	2,713	13,292
26	2,168	13,000
4	2,587	11,596
32	2,898	10,986
77	1,990	9,966
27	1,791	9,427
30	1,652	9,429
5	1,908	7,975
33	1,002	8,251
89	1,419	7,394
82	1,338	6,890
78	1,359	6,800
90	1,387	6,623
35	960	6,894
79	1,396	6,194
80	1,141	5,622
91	1,390	5,106
29	940	5,219
37	992	4,931
36	591	2,119
7	302	1,516
92	185	1,495
81	250	801
6	97	479
88	27	63

Celebrated Divisions.

The most effective fighting was done by the regular divisions, though good service was rendered by National Guard and National Army divisions. The Second Division suffered the greatest losses in battle and also captured more Germans, namely 12,026. The First Division, whose battle losses were only a little short of those of the Second, captured 6,469 prisoners. Of the divisions of the National Guard the one most heard of was the 42nd, commonly called the "Rainbow Division," composed of units from many of the States. It captured 1,713 prisoners, and was the first division to reach the German line of communication at Sedan at the close of the Meuse-Argonne battle.

American Services.

"When the Armistice came," says Frank H. Simonds, "America had troops fighting on the Scheldt, the Upper Sambre and on the peculiarly American front between the Meuse and the Moselle, while there were other divisions ready to join in the proposed attack between the Moselle and the Saar. She had engaged 29 divisions and had 13 more available. She had two armies organized under Generals Liggett and Bullard. She held more line than the British and nearly as much as the French; and alone of the commanders of national armies, Pershing reported his forces as ready to continue during the historic session which framed the terms for the German surrender.

Reservoir of Man-Power.

"In sum, America came to the battle of France as Blücher came to that of Waterloo, bringing the reserves of victory, engaging the enemy before he could achieve a decision, drawing off his reserves at the critical moment and finally supplying the Allies with a reservoir of man-power which enabled them to seize the offensive, break the power of resistance of an enemy already exhausted by his supreme effort, and join in the pursuit which had no visible terminus at the moment when the Armistice ended the fighting.

Made Counter-Offensive Possible.

"It was the existence of American divisions available for action which enabled Foch to risk the counter-offensive of July 18th; it was the actual fighting of these divisions which permitted the victory and insured the exploitation of it, which was so fatal to the Germans. These first divisions, then, enabled the great French Marshal to regain the initiative, while St. Mihiel and the Meuse-Argonne sucked in so many more German divisions, otherwise available against the French and the British, that on Armistice morning Ludendorff was destitute of all further resources. He was powerless before a blow which was already impending."

Barrage of Mines in the North Sea.

One of the most interesting enterprises undertaken by the Allies was the laying of a great barrage of mines across the North Sea from Norway to the Orkney Islands. The plan originated in America, but it was carried out with British assistance. Over twenty vessels partici-

pated in the work, one of them being the old cruiser *Baltimore*, one of Dewey's vessels in the battle of Manila Bay. Each of the mines contained about three hundred pounds of TNT, one of the most powerful explosives known. A special device for laying the mines was used. Occasionally one would explode after it had been dropped overboard, but, although 70,000 mines were planted, not a single one exploded on board ship. As the water in that portion of the North Sea is comparatively shallow, it was possible to anchor the mines so as to keep them in place. Four-fifths of the mines were of American manufacture, and most of the mine laying was done by Americans. This barrage of mines rendered it exceedingly difficult and dangerous for German submarines to get out of the North Sea, and it is probable that a few were destroyed in making the attempt.

German Military Efficiency.

It will be the verdict of history that, although beaten, Germany had fought a remarkable war. Confronting heavy odds, she managed to inflict upon her opponents losses in killed, wounded and captured more than double the losses she herself sustained. In large measure it was Germany's direction and support that made her allies formidable. The German military leaders made mistakes, but, upon the whole, their strategy was usually good, and they carried out their plans with great energy and determination. Of their mistakes perhaps the most fatal was made in the early weeks of the war, when they weakened their armies invading France by detaching troops to help in the defense of East Prussia. It is possible that had these troops been present at the first battle of the Marne it would have been a victory for Germany, and victory in that battle would have meant the conquest of France. Most of the great German mistakes were made in underestimating their opponents and in failing to realize the importance of preserving the neutrality of such nations as the United States.

German Leaders.

At the beginning of the war the German Chief of Staff was von Moltke, nephew of the great soldier who led the French armies in the days of Bismarck. The failure of the drive against France resulted in his retirement, and von Falkenhayn succeeded him. In the summer of 1916 von Falkenhayn gave place in turn to von Hindenburg. In the popular mind von Hindenburg was much the greatest soldier on the German side, though it is difficult to say how much of his success resulted from the efforts of his right hand assistant, von Ludendorff. During the period of the great German drive of 1918, the world heard most of Ludendorff, but towards the end he resigned. Hindenburg continued in command, and, unlike the Kaiser and many other notables, he remained with the sinking ship. Von Mackensen won many important successes in the course of the war, but all of his service was

on the eastern fronts; he never commanded on the Western Front, where the competition was keener. In judging these and other German leaders, it is difficult to say how much of their success was due to the superiority in the early years of the war of the German war machine.

French Leaders.

At the beginning of the war General Joffre was the French Commander-in-Chief and he will always be remembered for "the Miracle of the Marne," but he was puzzled by the problems connected with trench warfare and willingly gave place late in 1916 to General Nivelle, who was succeeded after the failure of the French offensive in the following spring by General Petain. Petain was a general of much solid ability but no great brilliance. He remained at the head of the French armies until the end. Among the minor French Generals deserving of mention were Gouraud, d'Esperey and Mangin.

Foch the Supreme Figure.

The greatest of the French Generals and the supreme military leader of the whole war was Marshal Foch. It was he who at the first battle of the Marne blocked the German attempt to pierce the French center, and in subsequent operations he played a brilliant and honorable part. In the midst of an awful crisis he became Commander-in-Chief of all the Allied forces. In the bitter weeks that followed he managed to hold in check the German flood and at the opportune moment snatch the offensive from his enemy. Thereafter the war moved toward Berlin, and in all centers of Allied activity the campaigns he set in motion proved victorious. In a little more than seven months he transformed defeat into triumph and overwhelming victory. His name will always stand in the front rank of supreme military leaders. Of those leaders he was one of the most intelligent, and it should be added that, to his immortal glory, he was a man of high character and an unselfish patriot.

Russian Leaders.

In their conflicts with the Germans, Russian generals were greatly handicapped by the inferiority of their troops in training and equipment. However, the Russians won some great victories over the Austro-Hungarians and Turks. At least two of their leaders are entitled to a high place among the leaders of the war, namely Grand Duke Nicholas and General Brussilov.

British Leaders.

Of British leaders General French was thought to have done well at Mons and in the retreat thereafter, but his conduct at the battle of the Marne has been severely criticized. He did not quite measure up to the demands of the new warfare and was presently succeeded by General Haig. Though not brilliant, Haig was a capable general and led the British armies to ultimate victory. Maude, "the ever victorious," who took Bagdad; Byng, the victor of Vimy Ridge, of the Battle of the Tanks, and of other conflicts; and Allenby, who took Jerusalem

Colonel Lawrence.

and destroyed the Turkish army in Palestine, were perhaps the most notable. For things accomplished by sheer individual ability, the palm would have to be given to Colonel Lawrence, who was perhaps the most remarkable figure of the whole Great War. To the efforts of this young English archæologist and ethnologist was mainly due the success of the Arabian revolt against the Turks. The story of his astonishing adventures reads like a tale out of the *Arabian Nights*.

Pershing.

The Americans entered the war very late and our troops participated in a large way for only about four months. The time was too short for the development of great military reputations. Furthermore, much of the American fighting was done by troops attached to British or French armies. Separate American armies undertook only two considerable operations, that of the St. Mihiel salient and that of the Meuse-Argonne. Nevertheless, it will undoubtedly be the verdict of history that General Pershing performed his task with remarkable skill and energy. He will hardly rank, however, with Washington, Grant and Lee. Among the subordinate American leaders who deserve mention here are Summerall, Bullard, Harbord, Bundy, Liggett and Bliss. The last mentioned was Chief-of-Staff in France.

Naval Leaders.

On the sea the war produced no leader of the very first rank. Upon the whole, it would have to be said that the German admirals displayed at least as good ability as their British opponents. Admiral von Spee, Captain von Müeller, Commander of the *Emden*, Admiral von Hipper and Admiral von Scheer will be remembered in naval history. Admiral Jellicoe, Commander of the Grand Fleet in the first years of the war, could hardly be said to have displayed the talents of a Nelson, and his failure to destroy the German fleet at the battle of Jutland undoubtedly prolonged the war by many months. Admiral Beatty, who succeeded him, was the most enterprising of the important British naval leaders and in the battle of Heligoland Bight, in the running fight in which the *Blücher* was sunk and in the battle of Jutland displayed talents of a high order. That the British retained control of the sea to the end was due rather to their great superiority in warships than to unusual leadership.

Sims.

The French naval leaders won no special distinction. The American navy fought no battles excepting occasional brushes with a submarine. It is beyond question, however, that Admiral Sims, who had charge of our naval operations in the war zone, performed his task with much professional skill, despite the handicap imposed in the early months of the war by the failure of the department at home to realize the needs of the situation. Sims won high praise from the British leaders with whom he coöperated.

Famous "Aces."

Many aviators won world-wide renown during the war. In the first two years much was heard of the two German aviators Boelke and Immelmann and of the French flyer Navarre. The most famous of all the French aviators was Captain Guynemer, who was called the "King of the Aces." He was small and frail and was five times rejected for military service but finally succeeded in entering a school of aviation. Before his death he was credited with having shot down fifty-three German airplanes. On one occasion he shot down three machines in a few minutes and then a shell carried away one of the wings of his plane, and the plane, with Guynemer strapped to the seat, fell to the earth 10,000 feet below. However, he survived this accident. Of the German airmen the most celebrated was Baron von Richthofen, who commanded a division of airplanes that came to be known as the "Flying Circus." Richthofen was officially credited with having destroyed eighty Allied planes, but as it was the German custom to count a two-seater as two planes, his record was not so large as that of some other aviators whose exploits will be described in a moment. The Baron was a courteous fighter and a good sportsman and frequently landed beside the wrecks of the planes he had shot down and aided his antagonist, in case that antagonist survived. He was finally killed over the old Somme battlefield on April 21, 1918, and was buried with full military honors by the British.

Guynemer.

Richthofen.

Captain Ball.

At first the British did not make public the names of their successful airmen, but ultimately they changed this policy. Their most successful air fighter was Captain Ball, who shot down over forty enemy planes before he was himself killed on May 7, 1917, while engaged in fighting with five German planes, one of which he shot down.

Bishop.

Of all aviators the most successful was a Canadian, William Avery Bishop, a native of Owen Sound, Ontario. Bishop was small in stature and weighed only a little over a hundred pounds. When the war broke out, although not yet of age, he enlisted and was sent overseas as a cavalryman, but ultimately he entered aviation. For almost a year he served as an aerial observer and was once shot down and suffered a broken leg. After his recovery he became a fighting pilot, and in the spring of 1917 began his real career. In his practice Bishop devoted a great deal of attention to marksmanship and ultimately attained unusual skill. It was his custom to begin shooting at very long range; frequently he brought down the German plane before the German aviator had even opened fire. Before the end of the summer he had shot down forty-seven German planes and had attained the rank of captain. He was given a furlough and visited Canada and the United States, wrote a book called *Winged Warfare*, and married a very beau-

His Last Raid.

tiful Canadian girl of wealthy family. On his return to the front he was given command of a body of picked aviators and with them performed many notable exploits and repeatedly clashed with Baron von Richthofen's "Flying Circus." In less than two weeks, at the end of June, 1918, he shot down twenty-five enemy planes. These exploits made the Canadians and British as well very proud of him. Those in authority realized, however, that if he continued in active service the pitcher some time would go to the well for the last time. It was felt that he had earned the right to life and happiness, and, therefore, he was ordered home to train Canadian airmen and direct the mobilization of aviators for overseas service. Before leaving the fighting front he got into his little plane and made one last raid over the Hun lines. He was attacked by six German planes and shot down five of them, but as he himself remarks, "the sixth got away from me in the excitement." This brought his official record up to seventy-two planes, but it was generally recognized that he had destroyed a great many more under conditions such that the exact facts could not be ascertained and added to his score. He was awarded practically every medal the British and French governments had to bestow. Among these medals was the Victoria Cross, which was specially conferred upon him by King George.

Lufbery.

Before the United States entered the war a number of American aviators who had volunteered in the first service were formed into the La Fayette Escadrille. The commander of this squadron was Raoul Lufbery. Lufbery was born in France, his mother being a French woman and his father an American. Much of his early life was spent in Wallingford, Connecticut, but at fifteen he set out to see the world and learned aviation before the war began. Among the other Americans in this Escadrille were Norman Prince, Kiffen Rockwell, Victor E. Chapman and William Thaw. All of these but Thaw were killed before the United States entered the war.

La Fayette Escadrille.

After the United States entered the war the La Fayette Escadrille was transferred into the American service, and Major Lufbery was continued in command. It became known as the "hat-in-the-ring" squadron. In May, 1918, in a fight with a German Albatross, Lufbery's plane was set on fire, and as it passed over a stream he leapt out of the machine from a height of two hundred feet but missed the water and was killed. He was given an imposing funeral, which was attended by many celebrated French and American officials. Lufbery had won seventeen victories. His place as the commander of the La Fayette squadron was taken by Eddie Rickenbacker, who ultimately became the premier American "Ace." Rickenbacker had been a famous automobile race driver prior to the war. When the United States entered

Rickenbacker.

the conflict, he hurried home from France, where he was arranging for the building of racing cars, and attempted to enlist other racing drivers into a squadron of flyers. He found less enthusiasm for fighting among other drivers and ultimately went back to France as driver of General Pershing's automobile, with the rank of sergeant. But this was too tame a task, and he soon got into aviation. As a race driver he had been distinguished both for daring and good sense, and these qualities were displayed in his work as an airman. He learned to maneuver his plane with great skill and also devoted much time to practicing with his machine-gun. Within the first month after he went to the front he shot down five German planes and thus became entitled to be called an "Ace." Soon followers of the racing game began to watch his mounting score. Ultimately his record was twenty-six enemy planes and balloons shot down.

Frank Luke.

Next to Lufbery and Rickenbacker the most notable American pilot was Lieutenant Luke of Arizona. Luke was a mere boy and exceedingly daring. He especially enjoyed attacking German observation balloons. In six days he shot down thirteen such craft and acquired the nickname of the "balloon strafer." Near sunset of September 29th, soon after the Americans began the great Meuse-Argonne drive, Luke circled low over an American aviation station and dropped a note which read: "Look out for enemy balloons at D-2 and D-4 positions—Luke." A few minutes later there came a burst of flame and then another. Luke's watching friends waited, but he did not come back. For many weeks no tidings came of him, but ultimately it was learned that he had fallen within the German lines and, scorning to surrender, had died fighting.

American Seaplane Crosses Atlantic.

The great improvements in airplanes encouraged aviators to attempt feats that would have been considered impossible before the war. In May, 1919, three American naval seaplanes attempted to fly from Newfoundland to Europe by way of the Azores. The *NC-4*, with a crew of five under Lieutenant Commander Read, reached Horta in the Azores, a distance of twelve hundred miles, in a little more than fifteen hours. Later it flew to Portugal and thence to England. Another plane was wrecked in sight of its destination, and the crew were rescued by a steamship. A third was forced down to the sea while still two hundred miles from the Azores, but reached the islands under its own power by running on the surface.

The London *Daily Mail* had offered a reward of $50,000 for the first direct trans-Atlantic flight. A few days before the seaplanes left Newfoundland, Harry Hawker, an Australian, and Lieutenant Commander Grieve, an Englishman, left Newfoundland in an ordinary airplane for the British Isles. Nothing was heard of them for several

days, and it was generally believed that they had perished in mid-ocean, but ultimately a little Danish vessel, which was not equipped with wireless, brought them to The Hebrides. The *Daily Mail* gave them half the reward in recognition of their daring effort. In the following month Captain John Alcock and Lieutenant Arthur W. Brown of the British army flew from St. Johns, Newfoundland, in a land plane and made the trip across the ocean in safety in sixteen hours and twelve minutes.

Other Exploits.

In July, 1919, a British dirigible, the *R-34*, flew from the British Isles to Long Island and made the return trip in safety. Subsequently a German dirigible that had been made for the United States was brought in safety across the Atlantic. In 1924 American seaplanes flew completely around the world, making, of course many stops on the way.

SECTION XI.—THE PEACE CONFERENCE.

President Wilson to Attend the Peace Conference.

Seven days after the Armistice it was officially announced that President Wilson would attend the peace conference in person. It was the first time that a President had left the country on an official mission, and the announcement caused much discussion and some criticism. By certain critics it was pointed out that earlier in the month the President's party had been badly beaten and that he could not, therefore, go to Europe claiming a mandate from the American people.

Wilson in Europe.

The *George Washington*, bearing President Wilson and party, reached Brest on December 13th. In France, Italy and England the President was greeted by vast and enthusiastic crowds. The President seems to have taken this as a tribute to himself, but, in part, it was intended as a recognition of America's great services to the common cause. Beyond question, however, many of the people who greeted him had an exaggerated idea of his abilities and expected him to solve all the problems of a distracted world. Beyond question, also, there were some Allied leaders who, remembering his "too proud to fight," his "peace without victory" and other like utterances, resented his effort to pose as the hero of the war. Nevertheless, he occupied a very strong position. He was President of the nation that had made victory possible, a nation which, alone of all the warring powers, still possessed great financial resources. The Allied powers had already borrowed vast sums from the United States and hoped to borrow more. A debtor under such conditions must show consideration for the representative of his creditors.

Membership of the Commission.

Besides Wilson, the American delegation was composed of Secretary of State Lansing, Colonel Edward M. House, General Tasker H. Bliss and Henry White. There was much criticism of the fact that no prominent Republicans were put upon the Commission, for, though Bliss and White were Republicans, they were not leaders. House was the personal friend of Wilson, and had gone on various secret diplomatic missions for him in Europe both before and after we entered the war. Many Senators felt that their body should have been represented on the commission, and pointed to the fact that President McKinley had appointed two Senators to the commission that negotiated the treaty that ended the Spanish-American War. Critics of Wilson contended that he did not wish to appoint to the Commission any one likely to oppose him. Upon the whole, as was said at the time, past peace commissions did not suffer by comparison with this one.

European Notables.

Among the notable members of the conference were Premier Clemenceau, Jules Cambon, of France; Premier Lloyd George and Foreign Secretary Balfour, of England; Premier Orlando and Foreign Minister Sonnino, of Italy; the Marquis Saionji, ex-Premier of Japan; Premier Venizelos, of Greece; Premier Borden, of Canada; Premier Hughes, of Australia; and Generals Louis Botha and Jan C. Smuts, of South Africa. Some of the representatives from smaller states, such as Venizelos and Smuts, were beyond any question, abler men than certain representatives from some of the greater powers. Clemenceau was made permanent chairman of the conference.

Victors make the Terms.

Unlike most peace conferences the one that assembled in the Chateau of Versailles on January 18, 1919, consisted at first entirely of representatives merely from the victors. These victors intended first to agree upon the terms; these terms were then to be handed to the vanquished with the order, "Sign here!" Even this task was by no means an easy one, for between the victors themselves there existed many conflicting interests. The first of the Fourteen Points had been "open covenants openly arrived at;" but this principle was speedily violated, and wisely so. Although there were many committees and great numbers of specialists, most of the important decisions were made by the so-called "Big Four," namely Clemenceau, Lloyd George, Wilson and Orlando. Japan also played on some questions a very important part. Representatives of the lesser powers would have a hearing when questions especially concerning them were being considered.

Complicated Problems.

Not since the Congress of Vienna at the close of the Napoleonic wars had statesmen faced so many complicated problems. Questions of reparations, of boundaries, of safe-guarding the future peace of the

world, of peoples claiming the right of "self-determination," of punishing the guilty, both nations and individuals—all these and many others engaged the attention of the conference. To tell the whole story of the Peace Conference in detail would require volumes. It will be possible here merely to indicate some of the main controversies and the ultimate results. President Wilson was determined to incorporate into the treaty some provision for a League of Nations to prevent future wars. He found much opposition, for many delegates believed that the correct thing to do would be to settle the issues of this war and then at greater leisure evolve some method of preventing war. Many of the European representatives were mainly anxious for revenge and for material acquisitions at the expense of the vanquished. The French were greatly interested in reparations, but still more in so weakening Germany that France need not fear some future war of revenge. Many Frenchmen, including Foch, insisted that France must have all German territory as far as the Rhine, and some thought that she must dominate the great industrial region of the Ruhr Valley. Clemenceau, the head of the French delegation, had no use for fine-spun theories. He had little faith in a League of Nations and regarded Wilson as a doctrinaire. Regarding Wilson's famous Fourteen Points he once growled, "The good Lord had only ten." Lloyd George was willing to see the experiment tried, but was not optimistic of success.

Wilson gives way.

Ultimately Wilson had his way, and the League of Nations Covenant. But to win the support needed to accomplish this result, he gave way on many other questions and permitted some of his Fourteen Points to go by the board. For example, he gave up entirely "the freedom of the seas," and to obtain the support of Japan, agreed to permit that nation to retain control of Shantung, although when we persuaded China to enter the war, our Minister had promised that the peninsula should be restored to China.

The League of Nations.

The League of Nations provided for the creation of an Assembly, a Council, and a permanent Secretariat. The Assembly was to be composed of representatives from the various members of the League, and each member was to have one vote, but could have only three representatives. Five of the British Dominions, namely Canada, Australia, South Africa, New Zealand and India, were given membership in the Assembly. The Council was to consist of representatives from Great Britain, the United States, France, Italy and Japan, and from four other members of the League to be designated from time to time by the Assembly. The permanent Secretariat was to consist of a Secretary General and of other officers that might be needed. The Secretariat

was to be constantly active at the seat of the League, which was established at Geneva.

Aims and Procedure.

A complete copy of the Covenant is placed in the Appendix. The Covenant recognized the desirability of reducing armaments and provided that members of the League would guarantee against external aggression the territory of respective members. Any war or threat of war was declared a matter of concern to the whole League, and the League should take action to preserve the peace. In any such case the Secretary General must on the request of any member of the League summon a meeting of the Council. The members of the League agreed in case of a dispute that might lead to a rupture of peace relations, that they would submit the matter to arbitration or to inquiry by the Council, and they also agreed that in no case would they resort to war until three months after the award by the arbitrators or the report by the Council. The Council was to formulate plans for the establishment of a Permanent Court of International Justice to settle disputes. One article established a system of mandatories for the control of conquered colonies.

Territorial Terms.

The terms of peace provided that Germany should lose all her colonies. The lion's share went to Great Britain, though under mandatories that might mean in the end much or nothing. German East Africa was put under British control, and German Southwest Africa under the Union of South Africa. The mandatory over the German Samoan Islands was given to New Zealand; that over most of the other German Pacific possessions south of the Equator to Australia. Japan received the mandatory over the German Pacific Islands north of the Equator, and she also retained Shantung, conquered by her earlier in the war. The Japanese promised that they would ultimately restore the peninsula to China, but the Chinese representatives insisted that the transfer should be made immediately, and they were so disgruntled by the terms actually incorporated that they refused to sign the treaty.

Mandatories.

European Terms.

In Europe, Germany was compelled to give up a large part of Prussian Poland to be united with the new Republic of Poland. Danzig was to be made a free city, and a corridor of territory was to extend from Poland to the Baltic Sea, thereby cutting off East Prussia from the rest of Germany. Plebiscites were to be held in Silesia to determine whether the different districts would remain a part of Germany or would join Poland. The people of Schleswig, torn from Denmark in 1864, were to be given an opportunity to decide whether they wished to be re-united with Denmark. To Belgium, Germany must cede a small strip of territory that was inhabited mainly by Walloons. To France,

Germany must give up Alsace-Lorraine. By way of recompense for the damage done by the Germans to French coal mines, the Sarre Basin, rich in coal and iron, was to be under international control for fifteen years, after which the people were to be given an opportunity to decide upon their future. The fortifications on the island of Heligoland were to be destroyed, and the German navy must be reduced to six battleships, six cruisers, twelve destroyers and twelve torpedo boats. No submarines were to be permitted her, and the total number of men in the navy must not exceed 15,000. The army must be reduced to 100,000 men, including officers, and there must be no conscription. Germany must recompense Allied peoples by making within two years payments amounting to about five billion dollars, and the final amount of reparations was to be determined later. To make good the damage done by the irregular use of her submarines, she must turn over a large part of her merchant fleet and must build new vessels for the same purpose. She must agree to the trial of the Kaiser for a supreme offense against international morality and to the trial of others charged with offenses against international law.

Germany Forced to Sign.

Such were the main terms of this longest of all treaties, a document containing about 80,000 words. When it was completed by the Allied representatives, the German delegation was invited to Versailles to accept and sign it. Germany denounced the treaty as a "peace of violence," a "peace of annihilation," a "monstrous document." They cried out that they would not sign such a treaty, and contended that it violated the principles agreed upon before the Armistice was made. A few concessions were made by the Allied representatives, and then the demand was made that the Germans must either accept or reject the terms, and they were told that, in case of rejection, the war would be renewed. Having under the terms of the Armistice turned over all her submarines and most of her fleet, together with most of her artillery and airplanes, Germany was in no condition to resist. Changes took place in the German government, and on June 23, 1919, the German Minister of Foreign Affairs announced that Germany would yield to "superior force." The actual signing of the treaty took place five days later on the fifth anniversary of the assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, the tragedy that had brought on the war. The signing took place in the Hall of Mirrors in the Palace at Versailles, the room in which 48 years before, after taking from France Alsace-Lorraine and imposing enormous indemnities in money, William I. had been crowned Emperor of the newly created German Empire.

The Treaty Signed.

Alliance with France and Great Britain.

Next day President Wilson and party sailed from Brest on the *George Washington* for America. In February and March he had made hurried trips back to the United States to attend to home affairs and to sign bills passed by Congress. He now took with him the treaty of peace including the League of Nations Covenant and also the terms of an alliance with England and France. This alliance had been negotiated by him as part payment to France for foregoing her claims to the left bank of the Rhine and for consenting to accept the League of Nations. Its main provision was as follows:

Pledge to France.

"In addition to the securities afforded in the Treaty of Peace, the President of the United States has pledged himself to propose to the Senate of the United States, and the Prime Minister of Great Britain has pledged himself to propose to the Parliament of Great Britain, an engagement, subject to the approval of the Council of the League of Nations, to come immediately to the assistance of France in case of unprovoked attack by Germany."

Pact Rejected by United States.

The story of the fight in the United States for the ratification of the Treaty of Peace has already been told in a preceding volume. The Security Pact quoted above was much more speedily rejected by the Senate. It had never had, in fact, any chance of being ratified by the United States. But the French, having accepted it as part payment for giving up some of their extreme demands, claimed after the pact was rejected that they had been left in the lurch.

Criticism of the Treaty.

The Treaty of Peace was severely criticized in Germany, in neutral countries and even in some of the Allied nations. Some of the economic provisions were, in fact, indefensible and impossible of fulfillment.

Breakup of Austria-Hungary.

The Austro-Hungarian Empire was completely broken up. Considerable territory was united with Poland. Transylvania was united with Roumania. Those sections inhabited largely by the Servians were united with Servia and Montenegro into a greater Servia called Jugoslavia. Italy received considerable territory that was inhabited chiefly by Italians, but after a bitter controversy failed for the time being to acquire Fiume. Out of what remained of the old Dual Monarchy three independent republics were created, namely, Austria, Hungary and Czecho-Slovakia. Austria was reduced to a little state of a few thousand square miles, and five or six million people. Indemnities were imposed upon Austria, but for a long time her financial condition was so bad that instead of paying her conquerors, she received help from them.

SECTION XII.—THE AFTERMATH.

National Constituent Assembly.

The chief aims of the Bolshevist government in Russia were to make peace, to effect a social and economic revolution, and to spread the social revolution from Russia over the world. The manner in which the first object was accomplished has already been described, and something has been said about the harsh terms imposed upon Russia by the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk. Soon after the Bolshevists obtained control the long awaited National Constituent Assembly was elected. A majority of those chosen were identified with the Social Revolutionary party rather than with the Bolshevist faction of the Socialist party. The Bolshevist government, therefore, dissolved the Assembly, alleging that it was a reactionary body, and substituted for it a National Congress of Soviets. This new body in July, 1918, adopted a constitution for the country. It promised freedom of assemblage, of the press, of opinion and of conscience but definitely organized the dictatorship of the proletariat. All authority, both central and local, was vested in the Soviets of workers, soldiers and peasants delegates. Male and female citizens over eighteen years who won their living by "productive labor" and revolutionary soldiers and sailors were given the right to vote, but the nobility, the clergy and a large part of the middle class were disfranchised. Final power resided in a National Congress of Soviets chosen by indirect election and so organized as to assure control by the urban Soviets over those of the rural Soviets. Legislative power resided in a Central Executive Committee of about two hundred members.

National Congress of Soviets.

A Minority Rules.

In reality Russia in this period was ruled by a dictatorship of the Bolshevist party. This party included only a very small number of the whole Russian people, but its members were well organized and disciplined and managed to control the National Congress of Soviets and to defeat all attempts to overthrow their power. Public policies were carried into effect by the Peoples Commissioners, chief among whom were Lenine and Trotzky.

A Bloody Period.

The Bolshevists dominated the army and the courts and by legalized massacres on a large scale were able to terrorize and hold in check their opponents. Students of history and general readers of books about the French Revolution have often been horrified by the bloody executions in that period. But the victims of the guillotine in the French Revolution were few compared to the vast number who were done to death by the Bolshevists. Furthermore, industry and agriculture broke down, and still greater numbers perished as the direct or indirect result of famine.

Socialism.

The social revolution was carried out with great energy. The private ownership of land was abolished, and all real estate was confiscated by the state, but the peasants were permitted to occupy and use the lands they actually cultivated. Railroads and mines were also seized by the state. Factories were confiscated and were turned over to the workingmen. All public debts, both foreign and domestic, were canceled. The Russian Orthodox Church was deprived of its special privileges and its property disposed of, private banks were seized, and foreign trade was nationalized. The Red Flag became the national emblem, and statues of former Czars were replaced with those of Karl Marx and other Socialist heroes. The capital was transferred from Petrograd to Moscow.

Failure.

It has often been remarked that Socialism could only succeed in a country where the people were highly intelligent and highly imbued with public spirit. In Russia the great majority of the people were not merely ignorant but completely illiterate. Such people could not make the new order successful. Furthermore, that order was bitterly opposed by the former Russian capitalists and by capitalists in foreign countries, and the experiment was tried at a most unfortunate time when Russian industry, commerce and agriculture had been prostrated by the war. It is not strange, therefore, that Russian industry, agriculture and transportation broke down. Factories operated by the workingmen produced little or nothing; the peasants were content to raise only enough for themselves. The state itself was bankrupt. In 1921 a great drouth in southern Russia proved disastrous to the crops, and a horrible famine reigned over a large part of Russia for two years. Much aid was sent from foreign sources, especially from America, but hundreds of thousands perished.

Famine.

A Compromise.

Ultimately necessity compelled the Bolshevists to reach a compromise between capitalism and socialism. Though private property was theoretically abolished, the peasants were in real possession of their farms, and the workingmen in factories shared the profits with entrepreneurs who advanced the capital and managed industry.

Bolshevist Propaganda.

Like the French Revolutionists of more than a century before, the Bolshevists tried with missionary zeal to spread their ideas in other countries. Their propaganda was spread throughout Europe and even in America. Their efforts were opposed after the treaty of Brest-Litovsk by the Germans, who encouraged such liberated countries as Finland, Lithuania, Poland and Ukrainia to set up anti-Bolshevist governments dependent upon Germany and antagonistic to Russia. The Allies also bitterly opposed the Bolshevists, and in March, 1918, under the pretext that it was a war measure against Germany, they

Allied Intervention.

began intervention in Russia. An economic blockade of Russia was declared. The Czecho-Slovak division, whose exploits have already been described, were encouraged to defy the Bolshevist government; and Allied troops, including Americans, were landed at Murmansk on the Arctic and at Vladivostok in eastern Siberia. Bitter battles took place between these forces and Bolshevist troops. Allied aid was extended to anti-Bolshevist insurrections in various parts of Russia. The region about Archangel, the Crimea and much of Siberia were re-occupied by Allied troops or by anti-Bolshevist forces. But the opponents of the Bolshevists quarrelled among themselves. Many of the peasants feared that a reactionary success would mean the loss of their land. The Bolshevists were aided by patriotic feeling against foreign intervention, and ultimately the Bolshevists triumphed everywhere. Allied troops were withdrawn from Russia, and the anti-Bolshevist leaders and their followers were either killed, captured or driven into exile.

Bolshevists Triumph.

Bolshevist War with Poland.

In Russia the Bolshevists triumphed; outside of Russia they failed. Temporarily they managed to control in Hungary, and their disciples caused much trouble in Germany and even in the United States, but nowhere outside of Russia did they obtain a permanent foothold. The Bolshevists recognized the complete independence of Finland, Esthonia, Latvia and Lithuania. They fought a bloody war with Poland. For a time the Poles were successful and pushed their enemies far to the eastward, but in the summer of 1920 the Polish armies suffered bad reverses. Vast hordes of Bolshevists took Brest-Litovsk and other fortresses and marched on Warsaw. Poland once more seemed doomed, but the population rose with patriotic ardor, and even multitudes of women labored at the work of constructing fortifications. France hurried to Poland over a thousand officers, including General Weygand, who had been one of Foch's chief assistants in the Great War. The Polish forces were speedily reorganized. A campaign was carried out similar to that which had saved Paris in 1914. The Russians advanced to within artillery range of the Polish capital, but at an opportune time the Poles launched a great counter-offensive that carried all before it. Within ten days a third of the Russians had been killed, wounded or taken. Another third was forced to take refuge in East Prussia. The remaining third, without their artillery and munitions of war, escaped as a mere mob back into Russia. In October of 1920 an armistice was agreed upon, and in the following March a definite treaty was made. By this Treaty of Riga, Russia recognized the independence of Poland and agreed that the border should run from the Düna River to the Roumanian border.

Poles Victorious.

Boycott Lifted.

Gradually the boycott on Russia was lifted. In 1921 Great Britain ended her economic blockade and agreed to renew trade relations with Russia. The next year the Allies overcame their repugnance against the Bolshevist regime to invite the Bolshevists to an economic conference at Genoa. Formal recognition of the Bolshevist regime was extended by Great Britain and some other countries, but up to the present time, March, 1926, the United States has held back.

Alliance of Socialist Soviet Republics.

As a result of the World War Russia lost about a fourth of its population and of its arable land, a third of its industries and three-fourths of its coal and iron. What remained was divided up into a number of socialist Soviet Republics, which were federated together under the Federal Congress of Soviets, at Moscow. On December 30, 1922, representatives of the Soviet government and of the three chief Socialist Republics of the former Empire, namely, Ukraine, White Russia and Transcaucasia, agreed to unite the four into one allied state called the Alliance of Socialist Soviet Republics. Moscow was to be the capital, and the army and navy, foreign trade, methods of communication, foreign relations and certain other matters were classed as allied affairs. The following federal institutions were created: a Soviet Congress, Central Executive Committee, Council of the Peoples Commissioners and a Supreme Court. Each state retained its own institutions, and it was explicitly stated that each republic could, if it wished, withdraw from the Alliance. In the Central Executive Committee Russia was to have 270 representatives, the Ukraine 68 and Transcaucasia Federation 26, and White Russia 7. The Far Eastern Republic also voted to unite with the Moscow Soviet.

Death of Lenine.

On February 21, 1924, Lenine, who had long been in bad health, died. The Central Committee of the Communist party now became the real leader of Russia, and the actual control of affairs fell into the hands of a triumvirate composed of Stalin, Kamenev and Zinoviev. Rykov became Premier to succeed Lenine, but he was only a figurehead. Trotzky, who had been in control of the army ever since the revolution, was driven from power early in the following year.

Revolutions.

In every one of the Central Powers defeat was followed by a political revolution. King Ferdinand of Bulgaria abdicated in favor of his young son Boris, and real power fell into the hands of a group of Socialists. In Turkey Mohammed VI., who had become Sultan the preceding July after the death of Mohammed V., accepted the resignation of Enver Pasha and the other Young Turk leaders. His weak rule and allied dictation toward Turkey provoked a nationalistic movement led by Mustapha Kemal Pasha. Kemal was a soldier of ability, was well educated and possessed many admirable qualities. He estab-

lished a new government at Angora and ultimately made himself master of Turkey. In 1922 the Sultan Mohammed VI. was dethroned, and Abdul Medjid Effendi, son of a former ruler, was made Defender of the Faith and Caliph, but was not given political power.

In Germany and Austria-Hungary.

The fall of the Hohenzollerns and the Hapsburgs has already been chronicled. In Germany minor kings and princes in such states as Saxony and Bavaria were driven from power immediately afterward. Germany and the independent states that were formed out of the Hapsburg dominions all became republics.

Jugoslavia.

Jugoslavia, which has sometimes been called the "State of the Servians, Croates and Slovenes," was one of the results of the Great War. It is made up of Servia, Montenegro and some of the provinces of the old Hapsburg Empire. It is a constitutional monarchy, and its first ruler was old King Peter of Servia. In 1921 Peter died and was succeeded by his son Alexander, who had for some time been Prince Regent. In no small measure the creation of the new state was the work of Nikola Pashich, who was perhaps the most famous Servian statesman of modern times. Some friction occurred between the various racial elements and there was also trouble with Italy, happily settled by peaceful agreement.

Little Entente

In order to safeguard their interests Jugoslavia, Roumania and Czecho-Slovakia formed an alliance sometimes called the Little Entente. In large measure this pact is designed to hold in check Hungarian attempts at reconquest and revenge. With the Austrian republic comparatively good relations were established. Friendly relations between Roumania and Jugoslavia were promoted by the marriage in 1922 of King Alexander to a Roumanian Princess. An understanding was also reached between France and the Little Entente. The French looked upon this agreement as a sort of insurance against Germany, and for the same purpose they allied themselves with Poland.

Turkish Treaty.

By the treaty with Turkey, Armenia and Arabia were to be independent states. Great Britain was given a mandate over Palestine and Mesopotamia, Italy over a territory in the neighborhood of Adana, and France over Syria. Greece was given all of Thrace except about two thousand square miles around Constantinople, and received limited sovereignty over the east coast of Asia Minor. The Bosphorus, the Sea of Marmora and the Dardanelles were internationalized, and, although the Turks retained Constantinople, their power there was limited. The British erected Mesopotamia into a kingdom, putting upon the throne Prince Feisal, son of the King of the Hedjaz.

QUEEN MARIE OF ROUMANIA

FOUR GENERATIONS OF ENGLISH ROYALTY

Some of the terms of this treaty did not last very long. The United States refused a mandate over Armenia, and between the Bolshevists on the one side and the Turks on the other, the people of that unhappy country continued to lead a hectic existence. Turkish Nationalists set up a new capital at Angora in Asia Minor, under the leadership of Mustapha Kemal and fought a bitter war with the Greeks for the possession of Asia Minor. At first the Greek armies were successful and penetrated far into the interior. But near the end of 1920, as the result of an election, the Venizelos Ministry was forced to resign, and there fell from power the only man who could have saved the situation. King Alexander had died from infection resulting from the bite of a pet monkey, and his father, ex-King Constantine, was restored to the throne. Venizelos left Greece, and the evil result of the change soon became apparent. Jealousies between the British and the French and Italians aided the Turkish Nationalists. Late in the summer of 1922 Kemal Pasha in a sudden offensive overwhelmed the Greek army and recaptured Smyrna and all of Asia Minor. During their occupation the Greeks had treated the Turkish inhabitants very brutally, and now the Turkish repaid these brutalities with interest upon the Greek inhabitants. Smyrna was burned, and hundreds of thousands were forced into exile. As a result of the disaster Constantine was again dethroned and died soon after. He was succeeded by the Crown Prince, who took the title of George II. The Ministry was driven from power. Three ex-Premiers, two ex-Ministers, and a General were condemned to death and were executed by firing squads. Later George II was deposed and a Republic was established.

Nationalists and Kemal.

Greece Beaten.

The change came too late to retrieve the situation. Kemal Pasha was determined to regain eastern Thrace and attempted to cross the Dardanelles. British troops stationed along the Straits interposed, and a new war between Turkey and Great Britain seemed probable. But the financial situation at home was such that the British government endured much rather than go to war, while Kemal Pasha held back, too wise to force a conflict. Finally on October 11, 1922, an Armistice was agreed upon under the terms of which the Turks were to withdraw their troops from the neutralized area along the Straits while the Greeks agreed to withdraw from eastern Thrace. When the Greek troops were withdrawn, hundreds of thousands of the Christian inhabitants fled out of fear of the Turks. In all over a million refugees from Thrace and Asia Minor took refuge in Greece and the Greek islands. Great suffering inevitably followed, and vast sums had to be expended, much of the money being raised in the United States. A conference at Lausanne, Switzerland, in November, 1922, designed to

Armistice.

Refugees.

bring about an understanding in the Near East, was long unable to effect an agreement. At this conference a Turkish delegate announced that his government had declared that the Greeks still in Turkey, amounting to almost a million, would be compelled to leave the country. In the years that followed there took place one of the most considerable migrations of all history. Greeks and many other Christians in Turkey, left the country, while great numbers of Turks were forced out of Greece and the other Balkan states. A treaty was finally signed at Lausanne in July, 1923.

A Great Migration.

Reparations.

The severe treaty of Versailles brought about the resignation of the Scheidemann ministry, but the German National Assembly on the last day of grace voted to accept the Allied terms. By that treaty Germany lost all of her colonies and some of her European possessions, and she was also saddled with the responsibility of paying vast reparations. The exact sum was not fixed by the treaty, but finally after much bickering the Reparations Commission decided that Germany must pay in all the equivalent of fifty-four billion dollars in gold. The Germans protested that it would be impossible for them to pay such a vast sum, and endless negotiations and quarreling followed.

War Criminals.

On February 3, 1920, the Allies demanded that the Germans should consent to hand over for trial 890 war criminals, the names of the persons and the crimes with which they were charged being given. Included in the number were Hindenburg, Ludendorff, Tirpitz, the Crown Prince and Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria. Though admitting obligations under the treaty to comply, the German government replied that it would be a physical and moral impossibility to hand over the accused, and made a counter proposal that the accused should be tried before a German court at Leipsic. The Allied governments accepted this proposal with some reservations. Ultimately a number of those accused were tried, and a few were convicted, but none of them was punished very severely.

Monarchist Revolt.

In March, 1920, the Conservatives tried to overthrow the government. The leaders won the support of troops stationed west of Berlin and succeeded on March 13th in capturing the capital. Ebert and his assistants fled, and Dr. Wolfgang von Kapp was proclaimed Imperial Chancellor and Prime Minister of Prussia. However, the revolt received little public support, and the Majority Socialist Party called a general strike which soon completely paralyzed transportation and industry and brought about the downfall of the rebels. Red uprisings occurred in many places, but they ultimately were put down. The Ebert government regained control.

Germany handed over many merchant ships to make good the losses caused by illegal submarine sinkings, and in goods and money she also

THE FLAGS OF THE REICHSBANNER

paid considerable reparations. The sum total much exceeded any indemnity ever before paid by a beaten nation, but it amounted to only a small fraction of the amount demanded and the reparations soon began to fall far in arrears. Full payment was, in fact, absolutely impossible. Germany had been impoverished by four years of terrible war, and even after peace came multitudes were in a starving condition. Relief work, the total cost of which ran up into many millions of dollars, was done under American auspices and especially by representatives of the Society of Friends. The country was wholly upon a paper money basis, and the government printing presses were kept busy turning out more paper marks. When the war ended this paper money was worth only a small fraction of its face value in gold and depreciation continued with great rapidity until ultimately it was wholly worthless.

Reparations Fall in Arrears.

The inability of Germany to meet her reparation payments brought about repeated international conferences and endless negotiations and quarrels. Great Britain, the United States and Italy were inclined not to be too pressing, but France and Belgium were insistent that the full indemnity should be exacted. The British, who had ceased to fear Germany, had begun to realize it would be best for their own interests that Germany should be permitted to get upon her feet financially and able to participate in the trade of the world. The French, however, being contiguous to Germany, felt differently. They desired reparations to restore their devastated lands, and, furthermore, they were anxious to ruin Germany so thoroughly that she would never be able to wage a successful war of revenge. Early in 1922, in order to compel Germany to meet her obligations, French and Belgian troops crossed the Rhine and seized the coal mines and industrial seats of the Ruhr Valley, the very nerve-center of German life. The Germans adopted a policy of passive resistance. By Great Britain the seizure of the Ruhr was strongly disapproved, and the government of the United States seized upon the opportunity to order home the few American troops that still remained in the Rhine region. British publicists predicted that the seizure would bring about the total economic ruin of Germany and would probably result in the Bolshevists gaining control in that country. These gloomy predictions were not fulfilled, nor on the other hand did the French realize their hope to compel Germany to meet her payments, for it is difficult to extract much juice from a squeezed orange.

Conflicting Allied Views.

Ruhr Valley Seized.

In September the tension was somewhat relieved by the abandonment by Germany of passive resistance in the Ruhr. After much persuasion the French agreed to a plan originally proposed by Secretary of

Dawes Committee.

State Hughes of the United States. Two committees of experts were appointed to investigate the reparations system and the financial condition of Germany. The first, commonly called the Dawes Committee, because it was headed by Charles G. Dawes of the United States, met at Paris in the early months of 1924 and prepared a report on the means of balancing Germany's budget and the measures that ought to be taken to stabilize its currency. This report recommended among other things a two-year moratorium and other measures to enable the Germans to balance their budget, and also proposed a new German Bank of Issue and a foreign loan of 800,000,000 gold marks to stabilize the currency. For the fiscal year 1926-7, the Germans were to pay in reparations 110 million gold marks; for 1927-8 five hundred millions; in 1928-9 and thereafter, one thousand two hundred fifty millions, but this sum was subject to modification. The second committee investigated such questions as the amount of German capital in foreign countries, the amount of foreign currency in Germany and the amount of gold marks realized by the sale of paper marks abroad. At a conference at London of the Powers concerned most of the recommendations of the committees were adopted. The French and Belgians agreed to evacuate the Ruhr within a year. When the external loan of eight hundred million gold marks at seven per cent. was offered, it was promptly oversubscribed, over half being taken by American investors. At a conference of financial ministers at Paris in January, 1925, an agreement was reached regarding the distribution of the Dawes annuities. Up to this time the United States had been unable to obtain any satisfaction regarding the quarter of a million dollars expended for maintaining American troops in occupied German territory, although the Armistice provided that this cost should be a first charge upon Germany. Our Allies had weakly contended that we were not entitled to a share of German payments because we had not ratified the Versailles Treaty, but now at last they were forced to concede a considerable portion of each year's reparations to the United States to repay the occupation cost and also for damages inflicted upon our citizens by Germany.

Distribution of the Annuities.

British Suffrage Act.

In 1918 the British Parliament made important election reforms. The act provided that henceforth a general election must be held everywhere on the same day. No person could vote in more than two constituencies. Suffrage was extended to war veterans over eighteen years of age and to all men over twenty who met certain residence requirements and to all women over twenty-nine years of age who had owned or tenanted premises for six months or who were the wives of men who owned or tenanted premises for that period. A re-distribution of seats was made. For every 70,000 persons there was to be one

LAST OF THE AMERICAN TROOPS HOME FROM THE RHINE

representative in the House of Commons. "Votes for Women" had been conceded in no small measure because of the remarkable war work done by the women of Great Britain in support of their country.

British Election.

The Parliament Act of 1910 had limited the duration of a Parliament to five years. The Parliament chosen the same year would under the terms of this act have come to an end in 1916, but it was generally felt that it would have been undesirable to hold general elections while the country was at war. With the public approval the Parliament extended its own life from year to year. But when the Armistice was signed, it was felt that the time had come for the election of a new Parliament, and those in power believed that it would be opportune for themselves to hold it speedily. Such an election was accordingly held December 14, 1918. It resulted in the overwhelming triumph of the Coalition of National Liberals and Conservatives headed by Lloyd George. The Coalitionists won 485 seats, and their opponents only 107. Even ex-Premier Asquith, who had become a bitter critic of his former associate, was beaten. It was a great triumph for the little Welshman, who had brought the British Empire safely through the war.

Lloyd George Succeeded by Bonar Law and he by Baldwin.

Lloyd George's position, however, was not an enviable one. Great social and economic problems pressed for solution. The Coalition that elected him was an unnatural one, and presently it began to fall apart. Gradually his majority diminished by the estrangement of both Liberals and Conservatives, and finally in 1922, when the Conservatives refused longer to follow his leadership, Lloyd George, to whom history will undoubtedly accord a place among the foremost of British leaders, found it necessary to resign. He was succeeded by a Conservative, Bonar Law, and in a general election the Conservatives won a majority. Ill health soon compelled Law's resignation; he was succeeded by another Conservative, Stanley Baldwin. Baldwin urged that Great Britain should abandon her free trade policy and adopt a protective tariff system. This issue was submitted to the people in a general election in 1923, and the decision went against the Conservatives. They retained a plurality of seats but not a majority. The majority was divided between the re-united Liberal Party and the very strong Labor Party. In the following year Baldwin resigned and for the first time in British history a Labor Cabinet was formed headed by Ramsay Macdonald. The Labor Party, however, did not have a majority in the House of Commons. The Macdonald Ministry, in fact, existed on suffrance, for both the Liberals and the Conservatives openly acted upon the theory that if the Laborites were given enough rope they would hang themselves. Finally, Parliament was dissolved, and in the election the Conservatives swept the country. Baldwin again formed a Cabinet.

A Labor Cabinet.

Sinn-Fein.

Following the suppression of the revolt of 1916, conditions in Ireland continued to be disturbed. It was necessary to keep many troops there to preserve order and the British government did not dare extend conscription to the island, though many Irishmen voluntarily enlisted. The Nationalist Party dwindled, and most of its members went over to Sinn-Fein. In the general elections of 1918 three-fourths of the Irish members were Sinn-Feiners, and they, instead of taking their seats in the British House of Commons at Westminster, proceeded to organize a Parliament of their own called the Dail-Eireann. This body met at Dublin and elected De Valera President. A bill designed to suit all parties was passed by the British Parliament in 1920. It provided for a separate Ulster Parliament and a separate Irish Parliament, and these Parliaments could choose between having a Council or a Common Parliament. But the scheme proved unsatisfactory. The Sinn-Feiners demanded complete independence and inaugurated civil war. The rebels were unable to meet the British in pitched battle, but they carried on a guerilla warfare, and there were many assassinations and other outrages. Many of the rebels were captured. Some of them, in the hope of winning sympathy, indulged in "hunger strikes." The most famous of these strikers was Terrence MacSwinney, Lord Mayor of Cork, who was detained in Brixton Prison, London. Though frequently offered food, MacSwinney persistently refused to eat, and at the end of seventy-four days he died.

Hunger Strikes.

Irish Free State.

The Lloyd George government was anxious to find some peaceful solution of the matter. Naturally, however, complete independence could not be conceded, and the conflict of Protestant Ulsterites in the north and of Catholic Irishmen in the south vastly complicated the situation. Finally Lloyd George invited the republicans to send representatives to London, and after prolonged negotiations a treaty was signed on December 6, 1921. It provided for the creation of the "Irish Free State," which was to have about the same freedom as Canada and the other British Dominions, that is, it was to manage its own domestic affairs. The six Protestant counties of Ulster could join the Free State or could continue under the separate government by the Home Rule Act of 1920. They chose the latter.

New Civil War.

A considerable number of Irishmen headed by DeValera refused to accept the compromise and continued to insist upon complete independence. In January, 1922, however, the Dail-Eireann by a narrow margin ratified the treaty and set up a provisional government for the Irish Free State, with Arthur Griffith and Michael Collins as President and Prime Minister respectively. De Valera and the Irreconcilables took up arms, and for a year a new civil war raged, this time between

the Irishmen themselves. Griffith soon died, and Collins was assassinated, but the provisional government, under the able leadership of William Cosgrave, gradually gained the upper hand. A constitution was made and adopted and was duly ratified by the British Parliament. In December, 1922, the Irish Free State was permanently established. In the elections of that year and 1923 the Republicans were beaten. Peace was restored, despite the efforts of De Valera and the Irreconcilables to wreck the whole country. In September, 1923, the Irish Free State was admitted to membership in the League of Nations. Friction continued with Ulster over boundary questions, but gradually common sense seemed to re-assert itself in both the Free State and Ulster. It is to be hoped that the final chapter in the long story of Irish oppression and misrule has been written.

"Self-Determination."

One of the favorite terms used by Woodrow Wilson and others at the Paris Peace Conference was "Self-Determination." By this it was meant that a nationality held in subjection by another nationality should be given the right to choose their political future. By Allied statesmen it was intended that the term should have practical application only in regard to nationalities held in subjection by the Central Powers. Under it Poland, Czecho-Slovakia and other new states were created. But the weapon was two-edged. Logically it could be made to apply to Filipinos, Egyptians, Hindoos and other peoples who were dominated by Allied Powers. Secretary of State Lansing was right in believing it a very mischievous doctrine, and ultimately some of the Allies had reason to repent that the idea had been given currency. The troubles of Great Britain with Irishmen seeking "Self-Determination" have already been described. In Egypt and India nationalistic movements developed that were productive of much trouble.

Egyptian Unrest.

In Egypt petty rebellions took place, and a number of foreigners were assassinated. Zaghlul, the Nationalist leader, was deported to Ceylon but the movement continued. Early in 1922 the British government abolished the protectorate over Egypt but reserved certain powers in the country and continued in control of the Soudan. During British control in the country, which covered a period of about forty years, much progress had been made. Slavery and the slave trade had been rooted out, great irrigation projects had enriched the country, and the population had more than doubled.

Tomb of King Tut. Found.

Interest in Egypt was greatly heightened near the end of 1922 by news of a remarkable discovery. Excavations carried on under the directions of an Englishman, Lord Carnarvon, and an American, Mr. Howard Carter, resulted in the discovery at Thebes of the tomb of

Tutankhamen, who had ruled about 1350 B. C. The tomb was in the most perfect condition of any royal tomb ever found in Egypt. It contained precious metals and objects of art, worth millions of dollars and possessing also great historical value. Thousands of tourists visited the scene, and the newspapers of the world were filled with stories describing the tomb.

Gandhi.

In India the nationalist movement had for its main leader Mohandes K. Gandhi. Born in India in 1869, he studied law in England and practiced for a while in South Africa, where he organized an ambulance corps and helped to care for soldiers wounded in the Boer war. Returning to India, he settled in Bombay and soon gained a considerable practice but gave away practically all that he made and ultimately retired from practice and took vows of poverty. Although there was some violence on the part of the nationalists in India, it was against Gandhi's wishes. He believed that he could win independence by "non-co-operation." The Indian people were to refuse to assist their rulers, and a widespread boycott was instituted against British goods. For a long time Gandhi was left unmolested by the authorities, but Indian unrest grew more pronounced, and it was ultimately found necessary to arrest him. He was tried and convicted and was sentenced to six years detention rather than imprisonment. Since that time the nationalist movement has seemingly lost force, and the country is comparatively quiet. Indian independence, though attractive in the abstract, would undoubtedly result in anarchy, similar to that existing before the British came. Even before the war the British took steps gradually to extend participation in government to the natives. In such peaceful evolution rather than in revolution lies the hope of the country.

Zionist Movement.

In November, 1917, five weeks before the capture of Jerusalem, the British government issued the Balfour Declaration, promising to facilitate the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people while safeguarding the rights of the non-Jewish communities. This Declaration was approved by France, Italy and the United States. After the conquest by Allenby's army, the military administration continued until July, 1920, when a civil government was placed in charge, headed by Sir Herbert Samuel, an ex-Cabinet Minister. Meanwhile Zionists all over the world had taken great interest in the movement. A considerable number of Jews actually went to Palestine, and the Hebrew language was made the official language equally with Arabic and English. The Arabs naturally viewed the course of events with misgivings, and riots took place between them and the Jews. However, the British government had no intention of creating a "wholly Jewish Palestine" such as some extreme Zionists de-

BENITO MUSSOLINI, PREMIER OF ITALY

sired. Peace and order were restored, and up to the present time the Jews have continued to be in a minority. As a matter of fact, while Jews the world over regarded with enthusiasm the abstract idea of a return to the Promised Land, comparatively few desired to make the concrete experiment of living in so barren a country.

Communism in Italy.

The end of the war found Italy impoverished and threatened with revolution. The Syndicalists, corresponding to the I. W. W.'s of the United States, managed in some places to seize factories in order to work them for themselves. Communist leaders prophesied that soon there would be a complete political and social overturn like that in Russia. For two years these elements were able to dominate much of the country. Finally, in despair, conservative people formed an organization called the Fascisti, so named because they took as their emblem the old Roman fasces or rod-bound axe. As another distinguishing mark, they wore black shirts. Their main leader was Benito Mussolini. The organization soon numbered hundreds of thousands. The Fascisti set about intimidating the Socialists and bringing an end to Socialist propaganda. Bloody collisions occurred in many places. Scores of thousands of Fascisti would gather and would seize towns in which the Communists were in control. Meanwhile the Italian government had been too weak to assert itself, and ministry had been followed by ministry. Finally 200,000 black-shirted followers of Mussolini gathered in Rome. The existing Facta ministry resigned, and Mussolini, with the assent of the King, seized control. Since that time he has practically been dictator of Italy and has ruled often with a high hand. It can be said of him in his behalf, however, that at least he saved Italy from Bolshevism.

Fascisti.

Mussolini.

Fiume.

Mention has been made of the fact that the Italians were indignant because the Treaty of Versailles did not assign to Italy the town of Fiume on the northeast shore of the Adriatic. In the secret Treaty of London of 1915, the Allies had promised to Italy Dalmatia but had not included Fiume. Italians had come to believe that they should have the place, but Wilson and others considered that it should go to Jugoslavia. In September, 1919, the poet d'Annunzio and a band of followers seized Fiume and held it for Italy, but were ultimately compelled to retire. Finally in November, 1920, the Italian and Jugoslav governments agreed in the treaty of Rapallo that Fiume should be formed into a Free State connected by a coastal strip with Italy proper, while the port Susak was given to Jugoslavia. In 1924, however, a new agreement was reached by which Fiume was annexed to Italy.

Permanent Court of International Justice.

The Covenant of the League of Nations provided that the Council of the League should prepare plans for an international court. A committee of jurists appointed by the Council prepared a plan for a Permanent Court of International Justice, and this plan, with some modifications was adopted by the Assembly of the League in December, 1920. This court consists of fifteen members elected for a term of nine years by the Assembly and Council of the League of Nations from a list of names nominated by panels of jurists. This court sits at The Hague and is open to members of the League and to states mentioned in the Annex of the Covenant of the League. Although the United States was not a member of the League, an eminent American authority on international law, John Bassett Moore, was appointed a member of the court. In 1923 President Harding advocated that the United States, with some reservations, should join the court. After long delay, and much controversy the subject was finally brought to a vote in the Senate late in January, 1926, and the Senate voted to join.

League of Nations Successes.

Thus far the League of Nations has neither been so successful as its creators expected, nor so complete a failure as its opponents predicted. Among its successes may be mentioned adjusting the dispute between Sweden and Finland, over the Aland Islands; the disputes between Servia and Albania, between Poland and Lithuania, and between Germany and Poland over Upper Silesia. The League also managed the financial rehabilitation of Austria. In 1925 a quasi-war developed between Greece and Bulgaria and there were armed clashes. The League helped to adjust the difficulty and imposed a financial penalty upon Greece.

Evasions.

On the other hand, the League has shown a disinclination to grapple with big questions. These questions have generally been handled by the ordinary diplomatic methods or at special councils of the Powers. In no instance has the League grappled with a really big and dangerous situation. The war between Greece and Turkey lasted for three years, yet the League did nothing. When trouble developed in 1923 between Greece and Italy over the murder of the Italian member of a commission that was delimiting the Greco-Albanian boundary, the League drew back from interference, after threats had been made by Premier Mussolini that such interference would not be tolerated. Germans insisted that the French seizure of the Ruhr was a proper subject for League action, but owing to the power of France the League would have dared do nothing even had it wished to interfere. Public opinion of the world, however, practically compelled the Italians to evacuate Corfu, which they had seized. A Conference of Ambassadors ordered Greece to pay the Italians an indemnity of $2,500,000.

Problem of Disarmament.

One of the most difficult problems that the League has had to face is the question of reduction of armaments. As described in the chapter on recent United States history, the Washington Conference provided for a reduction of naval strength by the great naval powers, but this conference did not attempt to diminish military establishments. Various proposals for compulsory arbitration and the outlawing of war were considered by the League. In 1924 the Assembly announced the Geneva Protocol that outlawed aggressive war and plainly stated that a nation is the aggressor that refuses the alternatives of war. But at a Council meeting representatives of Great Britain announced that, although in sympathy with the objects, it could not accept the Geneva Protocol because the general obligation to assist the victim of aggression would put too heavy a burden upon the British Empire. The British proposed that special arrangements should be made to meet special needs.

Locarno Conference.

A conference along the lines of the British proposal met at Locarno on October 5, 1925. Eleven days later Germany, Belgium, France, Great Britain, and Italy signed a treaty of mutual guarantee, generally known as the Security Pact. Under it the contracting parties guaranteed the maintenance of the territorial *status quo* between Germany and Belgium, and Germany and France, and these three powers agreed to settle by peaceful means all questions that might arise between them. All the signatory Powers promised that in case of flagrant aggression, such as actual invasion, they would come immediately to the aid of the party attacked. Arbitration treaties were also signed between Germany and France, Germany and Belgium, Germany and Poland, and Germany and Czecho-Slovakia. France and Poland and France and Czecho-Slovakia signed treaties agreeing reciprocally to aid each other in case of attack by Germany.

Possible Results.

In many quarters these Locarno agreements were hailed as a tremendous step forward. It was even asserted that they marked the beginning of the breaking down of old barriers between nations and that perhaps eventually they would lead to a federation of European states. What will be the ultimate outcome it would be hazardous to predict. That Germany should be received on a friendly footing with other nations in a common enterprise was undoubtedly encouraging. But far more than the Locarno pacts will be required to wipe out the memories of past hatreds. Germany accepted the pacts with the understanding that she would be admitted to membership in the Council of the League of Nations, but when the matter was brought up later before the League national jealousies prevented this consummation.

Recuperation a Slow Process.

Meanwhile Europe is slowly recovering from the orgy of the Great War. But generations must pass before this process of recuperation will be completed, and children yet unborn will have to bear, in bitterness and suffering, burdens heaped upon their innocent shoulders as a result of the mighty conflict precipitated in 1914. Yet, when all is said, humanity has survived much worse periods, and even Europe is convalescing more rapidly than most prophets dared to predict.

SUPPLEMENT.

THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION.

1. *Objects of constitutions.—Peculiar character of the British Constitution.*—Constitutions of government are formed among nations to define and restrict the powers of the sovereign, and to specify and secure the rights of the people. The British Constitution, unlike most other constitutions, is not a written instrument; but consist of acts of Parliament, decisions of courts of law, and long-established usages and customs. It is therefore superior to other constitutions; from the fact that it cannot be broken by any legislation. It is very elastic, and can be expanded without changing its form or character. Thus England has the same form of government to-day which it had from its foundation; but the English people have for the last eight hundred years gradually acquired new liberties, so that England to-day is practically as free as the freest republic in the world, the sovereign being divested of all power in the government.

2. *The British Government a mixed one.—The people and the aristocracy.*—The British Government consists of four systems united, affording the best example of a mixed form of government that the world has ever seen. The four systems thus united are monarchy, theocracy, aristocracy and democracy; so that the sovereign, the church, the nobility and the people all have a share in directing the destinies of the mighty British Empire. While the people of England have more civil and political liberty than any other in Europe, there is no aristocracy in the world so wealthy and powerful as the English nobility.

3. *Origin of the British Constitution.—The Feudal System.*—The British Constitution was formed very gradually, and its details are the results of long experience and are precisely adapted to the peculiar circumstances of the British nation. The government established in England by William the Conqueror was a feudal despotism; the lands of the kingdom being assigned to his Norman favorites, and the Anglo-Saxon population became the vassals, or serfs, of their Norman lords.

4. *First step in the direction of liberty.—Magna Charta.*—There were at first no written restrictions upon the king's authority over the barons, or nobles; but King Henry I., in order to secure his usurpation of the crown, granted some special privileges to the nobility and people of England. These privileges were flagrantly violated by King John, who was, however, on June 15, 1215, compelled by the English barons to grant *Magna Charta* [*kar'-ta*], or Great Charter

of rights and liberties, which has ever since been regarded as the foundation of the free constitution of England. Thus the powers of the lords, and also the rights of the commons, received some recognition. The most important provisions of Magna Charta were the following: *No freeman shall be taken, or imprisoned, or dispossessed, or outlawed, or banished, or in any way destroyed; nor will we pass upon him, nor commit him, but by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land. To no man will we sell, to none will we delay, to none will we deny right or justice.*

5. *Liberation of the cities and towns.—Origin of the House of Commons.*—The Crusades having tended to break up the feudal system throughout England and every other part of Europe, by compelling the rich barons to sell their lands, a class of small landholders grew up, who looked to the crown for protection against the tyranny of the nobles, while the cities and towns received charters of incorporation and were released from feudal dependence on the great barons. When old Simon de Montfort took up arms to resist the capricious tyranny of King Henry III., he summoned a Parliament to sanction his action; and, in order to gain popular support, he called upon the counties to elect *knights of the shire*, and requested the cities and boroughs to send deputies. Thus not only the lords, but also the commons of England, were represented. This was the beginning of the House of Commons, in which the people of England are represented by deputies elected for that purpose, and which has always defended popular rights against arbitrary encroachments on the part of the king and the lords.

6. *Growth of the royal power under the Tudor dynasty.*—The commons were thenceforth courted by the king as a counterbalance to the power of the nobility, whose repeated encroachments on the royal prerogatives threatened the establishment of an unlimited baronial aristocracy; but the "Wars of the Roses" almost annihilated the ancient nobility of England; and the authority of the king became almost absolute, and so continued throughout the reigns of the sovereigns of the Tudor dynasty, during the whole period of the sixteenth century.

7. *The struggle between the Stuarts and Parliament.—Petition of Right.*—With the accession of the Stuart family to the English throne, the commons insisted upon the recognition of their rights, and thus began those fierce disputes between king and Parliament which distracted England during the whole period of the seventeenth century—the period that the Stuarts occupied the throne. In this contest the lords sided with the commons. King Charles I. was compelled, by the bold attitude of the commons, to grant the *Petition of Right*, which bestowed on the English people many constitutional privileges. The contest between Parliament and Charles I. resulted in the king's execution and the temporary overthrow of the monarchy.

8. *The Habeas Corpus Act.—The Bill of Rights.*—When monarchy was restored in 1660, the struggle between the king and the commons was renewed, with results beneficial to the cause of liberty. During the reign of Charles II.,

Parliament passed the celebrated *Habeas Corpus Act*, which protected freedom of person against arbitrary arrests; but the grandest result in the onward march of English freedom was achieved by the "Glorious Revolution of 1688," which hurled the tyrant James II. from the throne, when Parliament passed the celebrated *Bill of Rights*, by which the king was shorn of his arbitrary powers, and his authority was reduced to a mere shadow, while the rights and liberties of the English people were secured on a new and permanent basis. The following were the most important provisions of the Bill of Rights: 1. *The king cannot suspend the laws or their execution.* 2. *He cannot levy money without the consent of Parliament.* 3. *The subjects have a right to petition the crown.* 4. *A standing army cannot be kept in time of peace without the consent of Parliament.* 5. *Elections and parliamentary debates must be free, and parliaments must be frequently assembled.*

9. *The Reform Bills of 1832, 1867 and 1884.*—After the Revolution of 1688 no change was made in the British Constitution until 1832, when Parliament passed the *First Reform Bill*, which extended the right of suffrage to half a million additional voters, and invested the middle classes of English society with the chief political power in the British Empire. The Reform Bill of 1832 was to England a great, although a bloodless, political revolution. No further advance in the direction of popular liberty was made in England until 1867, when Parliament passed the *Second Reform Bill*, which made the suffrage almost universal, by diminishing the property qualification of voters for members of the House of Commons, and by re-arranging the Parliamentary constituencies of the kingdom. By the *Franchise Act*, or the *Third Reform Bill*, passed by Parliament in 1884, the suffrage in Great Britain was made practically universal.

10. *The legislative power in England.—The English crown.*—The legislative power of England is vested in the king (or queen) and the two branches of Parliament—the lords and the commons. The crown of England is hereditary, but Parliament has the right to alter or regulate the succession. On the death of James II., in the year A. D. 1701, Parliament passed the famous *Act of Settlement*, which extended the right of succession to the Protestant heirs of James I., on the impending failure of Protestant heirs of James II. The crown therefore passed to the House of Brunswick, or Hanover, the Guelf family, the Princess Sophia of Hanover having been a granddaughter of James I.; and George I., Elector of Hanover, the son of Sophia, ascended the British throne in 1714, upon the extinction of the Protestant heirs of the House of Stuart. The present reigning family is the House of Brunswick, and holds the throne by right of the Parliamentary title of the Princess Sophia. Since the Norman Conquest of England, in 1066, the English throne has never been occupied by an Englishman, all the royal families since that date belonging to other nationalities—the dynasty founded by William the Conqueror being Norman-French; the Plantagenets being French; the Tudors being Welsh; the

Stuarts being Scotch, and the present reigning family of the Guelfs, known as the House of Brunswick, or Hanover, being German.

11. *Duties and prerogatives of the sovereign.—His Ministers.*—The duties of the English sovereign, as prescribed in the coronation oath, are: 1. To govern according to law; 2. To execute judgment in mercy; 3. To maintain the established religion. Those privileges of the monarch which belong to him in consequence of his high station are called the kingly prerogatives, and are of two kinds, direct and incidental. The chief of the direct prerogatives of the sovereign are: 1. The power of making war and peace; 2. Of sending and receiving ambassadors; 3. Of pardoning offences; 4. Of conferring honors and titles of dignity; 5. Of appointing judges and subordinate magistrates; 6. Of giving or revoking commissions in the army or navy; 7. Of rejecting bills proffered to him by the two Houses of Parliament. The sovereign is the head of the national church, and appoints to vacant bishoprics and other ecclesiastical dignities. But the king, or queen, cannot exercise his, or her, prerogatives directly and personally; but only through Ministers, who are responsible to the British nation as represented in the two Houses of Parliament. Hence the maxim of English law, "The king can do no wrong;" his Ministers alone being responsible. When, therefore, the measures of a Ministry are disapproved by a majority of the House of Commons, the Ministers in power must either resign or dissolve the House of Commons and order the election of a new House of Commons to ascertain the sense of the nation; and if a majority is returned in favor of the Ministers' policy, the Ministry remains in power; but if a majority is returned disapproving their course, a change of Ministry takes place. The Ministers are taken from the members of the two Houses of Parliament. The head of the Ministry is the *Prime Minister*, the *Premier*, usually the *First Lord of the Treasury*. The other members of the Ministry are the *Lord Chancellor*, the *Lord President of the Council*, the *Lord Privy Seal*, the *Home Secretary*, the *Foreign Secretary*, the *Colonial Secretary*, the *Secretary for India*, the *Chief Secretary for Ireland*, the *Secretary of War*, the *Chancellor of the Exchequer*, the *First Lord of the Admiralty*, the *Postmaster-General*, the *President of the Board of Trade*, the *President of the Poor Law Board*, and the *Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster.*

12. *Incidental prerogatives.*—The principal incidental prerogatives of the monarch are as follows: 1. No costs can be recovered against him; 2. His debt shall be preferred before that of a subject; 3. No suit or action can be brought against him, but any person having a claim in point of property on the king must petition him in chancery. There are also certain privileges conceded to the royal family. The queen retains her title and dignity, even after her husband's death; and she has the right to buy and sell in her own name, and to remove any suit at law in which she is a party to any court she chooses, without any of the common legal formalities. The king's eldest son is by birth *Prince of Wales*, and by creation Duke of Cornwall and Earl of Chester. All the

WESTMINSTER ABBEY, LONDON

NELSON MONUMENT, LONDON

monarch's children, and those of the Prince of Wales, receive the title of *Royal Highness.*

13. *The Privy Council.*—The *Privy Council* is another very important body in connection with the executive branch of the British government; being composed by many civil and ecclesiastical dignitaries appointed by the sovereign, all of them natural-born British subjects. The Cabinet Ministers constitute a committee of the Privy Council, whose President is the fourth great officer of state. This Council meets once in two or three weeks, but only such of its members attend as are specially summoned by the sovereign, the meeting usually consisting of the Cabinet Ministers, the great officers of the royal household and the Archbishop of Canterbury; but on extraordinary occasions all the members are summoned.

14. *House of Lords.*—The *House of Lords*, or Upper House of Parliament, consists: 1. Of *Lords Temporal*, or the princes of the blood royal and the hereditary nobles—such as dukes, marquises, earls or counts, viscounts and barons—who are members by right of birth; 2. Of *Lords Spiritual*, or the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, and the other bishops of the Church of England, who are members by virtue of their offices. The Scotch representative peers sit only for one Parliament; the Irish representative peers sit for life. A peer may vote by proxy; but each peer can only hold the proxy for one absent peer. The House of Lords can alone originate any bills that affect the rights or privileges of the peerage, and the Commons are not allowed to make any changes in them. Peers can only be tried by the House of Lords, and this House of Parliament constitutes the court in which officers of state are tried on impeachment by the House of Commons. The House of Lords is also the last court of appeal from inferior jurisdictions. Each peer may enter his protest on the journals of the houses when a vote passes contrary to his sentiments, and assign the reasons for his dissent in writing. When sitting in judgment his vote is given "on his honor." The same form is observed in answers on bills in chancery, but in civil and criminal cases he must be under oath.

15. *House of Commons.*—The *House of Commons*, or Lower House of Parliament, consists of members chosen by the counties, cities, boroughs and universities of England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The county members, usually styled *knights of the shire*, and borough members must possess real estate of a specified yearly value; but the sons of peers and university members need not possess these qualifications. Aliens, clergymen, judges, returning officers in the respective jurisdictions, officers of the excise and the like, those who hold pensions of a limited time, contractors with the Government, and others exposed to outside influences, are not eligible to seats in Parliament. The House of Commons has the sole power of impeachment. The members of Parliament, with the exception of the chairmen of several committees, receive no salaries.

16. *Qualifications of voters for members of the House of Commons.*—By the Reform Bill of 1832, the right of voting for members of the House of Com-

mons was given to leaseholders in counties seized on lands or tenements worth ten pounds a year, to tenants at will, farming lands at fifty pounds a year, and to holders in fee simple of lands or tenements of the yearly value of forty shillings. In cities and boroughs the right of voting is given to resident landholders whose tenements are worth an annual rental of ten pounds, but the rights of freemen in the old constituencies are preserved for life. By the Reform Bill of 1867 all these property qualifications were reduced, and the elective franchise was extended to several hundred thousand additional voters. By the Ballot Act of 1872 members of Parliament are elected by secret ballot, instead of by open voting, as before. By an express act of Parliament, no member of the House of Commons can be appointed to any office by the crown without resigning his seat; and no person elected to Parliament by any constituency can refuse to serve in the capacity to which he was chosen, even against his own will, except by formally resigning his seat in Parliament. By the Franchise Act, or the Reform Bill of 1884, the suffrage was made practically universal in Great Britain and Ireland, the elective franchise being extended to all men but criminals, paupers and lunatics.

17. *Legislation.—Speech from the throne.—Prorogation and dissolution.*—The House of Commons elects its own presiding officer, called the *Speaker*. Bills, in order to become laws, must pass three readings; and after being passed by both Houses of Parliament, must receive the royal assent before they can become laws. Every session of Parliament is opened by a *speech from the throne* to both Houses, the Ministers giving an account of the state of public affairs, and recommending to the consideration of Parliament certain measures of public policy. The act of proroguing Parliament, which means adjourning it for an indefinite time, is vested in the crown; but Parliament may adjourn its sittings to the next or to any future day. The power of dissolving Parliament is also vested in the crown, through its Ministers.

18. *The English Church.*—The established Church—known as the Church of England, the Anglican Church, or the Protestant Episcopal Church, as established during the reigns of Henry VIII., Edward VI. and Elizabeth—is under Government control. The sovereign is the head of the Church; and, as he is such, he must, therefore, be a member of that Church by law; being therefore the only individual in the worldwide British Empire who cannot choose his own religion. The first of the ecclesiastical dignitaries of the Church of England is the Archbishop of Canterbury, or the *Primate*, and next to him is the Archbishop of York. There are twenty-four other Bishops of the established Church. The two Archbishops and the twenty-four other Bishops are members of the House of Lords, as before noticed.

19. *Administration of justice.*—The king (or queen) is the source of executive justice; but law, whether criminal or civil, is administered by the Judges, who, excepting the Lord Chancellor, hold their offices during good behavior. The judiciary department in England and Ireland consists of the *Courts of Chan-*

cery, King's (or *Queen's*) *Bench, Common Pleas,* and *Exchequer;* in Scotland of the *Court of Sessions* and the *High Court of Justiciary.* In the rural districts *Circuit Courts* are held twice a year by itinerant justices. The House of Lords is the highest law court in the British Empire. A *Supreme Court* was recently established for appealed cases previously decided by the House of Lords. The Courts of King's (or Queen's) Bench are each presided over by a *Lord Chief Justice. Common law* is based on custom, or precedents established by decisions of the Courts. *Statute law* consists of Acts of Parliament. The *Law of Equity* is administered by the Lord Chancellor, in cases not covered by Statute law, and where justice can not be secured by the Common law. No man can be tried for any offence until a grand jury has decided that there is reasonable ground for the accusation; in which case the accused is handed for trial to a court of law, before a jury of twelve of his equals, and the verdict of that jury is final. No person can be tried twice for the same offence; and when a person is convicted by a jury there is no appeal but to the mercy of the crown. The civil and common law courts are open to every suitor, and justice is freely administered to all, of whatever rank or station. Treason against the government consists in insurrection against its authority or in adherence to its enemies.

MAGNA CHARTA.

(JUNE 15, 1215.)

[THE FOUNDATION OF THE FREE CONSTITUTION OF ENGLAND—THE BASIS OF ALL ENGLISH AND AMERICAN CONSTITUTIONAL LIBERTY.]

John, by the grace of God, King of England, Lord of Ireland, Duke of Normandy and Aquitaine, Count of Anjou, to the archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls, barons, justiciars, foresters, sheriffs, reeves, servants, and all bailiffs and his faithful people greeting. Know that by the suggestion of God and for the good of our soul and those of all our predecessors and of our heirs, to the honour of God and the exaltation of holy church, and the improvement of our kingdom, by the advice of our venerable fathers, Stephen, archbishop of Canterbury, primate of all England and cardinal of the holy Roman church, Henry, archbishop of Dublin, William of London, Peter of Winchester, Jocelyn of Bath and Glastonbury, Hugh of Lincoln, Walter of Worcester, William of Coventry, and Benedict of Rochester, bishops; of Master Pandulf, subdeacon and companion of the Lord Pope, of Brother Aymeric, master of the Knights of the Temple in England; and of the noblemen William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke, William, Earl of Salisbury, William, Earl of Warren, William, Earl of Arundel, Alan of Galloway, constable of Scotland, Warren Fitz-Gerald, Peter

Fitz-Herbert, Hubert de Burgh, steward of Poitou, Hugh de Nevil, Matthew Fitz-Herbert, Thomas Bassett, Alan Bassett, Philip d'Albini, Robert de Roppelay, John Marshall, John Fitz-Hugh, and others of our faithful.

1. In the first place we have granted to God, and by this our present charter confirmed, for us and our heirs forever, that the English church shall be free, and shall hold its rights entire and its liberties uninjured; and we will that it be thus observed; which is shown by this, that the freedom of elections, which is considered to be most important and especially necessary to the English church, we, of our pure and spontaneous will, granted, and by our charter confirmed, before the contest between us and our barons had arisen; and obtained a confirmation of it by the lord Pope innocent III.; which we will observe and which we will shall be observed in good faith for our heirs forever.

We have granted moreover to all free men of our kingdom for us and our heirs forever all the liberties written below, to be had and holden by themselves and their heirs from us and our heirs.

2. If any of our earls or barons, or others holding from us in chief by military service shall have died, and when he has died his heir is of full age and owe relief, he shall have his inheritance by the ancient relief; that is to say, the heir or heirs of an earl for the whole barony of an earl a hundred pounds; the heir or heirs of a baron for a whole barony a hundred pounds; the heir or heirs of a knight, for a whole knight's fee, a hundred shillings or more; and who owes less let him give less according to the ancient custom of fiefs.

3. If moreover the heir of any one of such shall be under age, and shall be in wardship, when he comes of age he shall have his inheritance without relief and without a fine.

4. The custodian of the land of such a minor heir shall not take from the land of the heir any except reasonable products, reasonable customary payments, and reasonable services, and this without destruction or waste of men or of property; and if we shall have committed the custody of the land of any such a one to the sheriff or to any other who is to be responsible to us for its proceeds, and that man has caused destruction or waste from his custody we will recover damages from him, and the land shall be committed to two legal and discreet men of that fief, who shall be responsible for its proceeds to us or to him to whom we have assigned them; and if we shall have given or sold to any one the custody of any such land, and he has caused destruction or waste there, he shall lose that custody, and it shall be handed over to two legal and discreet men of that fief who shall be in like manner responsible to us as is said above.

5. The custodian moreover, so long as he shall have the custody of the land, must keep up the houses, parks, warrens, fish ponds, mills, and other things pertaining to the land, from the proceeds of the land itself; and he must return to the heir, when he has come to full age, all his land, furnished with ploughs and implements of husbandry according as the time of wainage requires and as the proceeds of the land are able reasonably to sustain.

6. Heirs shall be married without disparagement, so nevertheless that before the marriage is contracted, it shall be announced to the relatives by blood of the heir himself.

7. A widow, after the death of her husband, shall have her marriage portion and her inheritance immediately and without obstruction, nor shall she give anything for her dowry or for her marriage portion, or for her inheritance which inheritance her husband and she held on the day of the death of her husband; and she may remain in the house of her husband for forty days after his death, within which time her dowry shall be assigned to her.

8. No widow shall be compelled to marry so long as she prefers to live without a husband, provided she gives security that she will not marry without our consent, if she holds from us, or without the consent of her lord from whom she holds, if she holds from another.

9. Neither we nor our bailiffs will seize any land or rent, for any debt, so long as the chattels of the debtor are sufficient for the payment of the debt; nor shall the pledges of a debtor be distrained so long as the principal debtor himself has enough for the payment of the debt; and if the principal debtor fails in the payment of the debt, not having the wherewithal to pay it, the pledges shall be responsible for the debt; and if they wish, they shall have the lands and the rents of the debtor until they shall have been satisfied for the debt which they have before paid for him, unless the principal debtor shall have shown himself to be quit in that respect towards those pledges.

10. If any one has taken anything from the Jews, by way of a loan, more or less, and dies before that debt is paid, the debt shall not draw interest so long as the heir is under age, from whomsoever he holds; and if that debt falls into our hands, we will take nothing except the chattel contained in the agreement.

11. And if any one dies leaving a debt owing to the Jews, his wife shall have her dowry, and shall pay nothing of that debt; and if there remain minor children of the dead man, necessaries shall be provided for them corresponding to the holding of the dead man; and from the remainder shall be paid the debt, the service of the lords being retained. In the same way debts are to be treated which are owed to others than the Jews.

12. No scutage or aid shall be imposed in our kingdom except by the common council of our kingdom, except for the ransoming of our body, for the making of our oldest son a knight, and for once marrying our oldest daughter, and for these purposes it shall be only a reasonable aid; in the same way it shall be done concerning the aids of the city of London.

13. And the city of London shall have all its ancient liberties and free customs, as well by land as by water. Moreover, we will and grant that all other cities and boroughs and villages and ports shall have all their liberties and free customs.

14. And for holding a common council of the kingdom concerning the assessment of an aid otherwise than in the three cases mentioned above, or concern-

ing the assessment of a scutage, we shall cause to be summoned the archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls, and greater barons by our letters under seal; and besides we shall cause to be summoned generally, by our sheriffs and bailiffs, all those who hold from us in chief, for a certain day, that is at the end of forty days at least, and for a certain place; and in all the letters of that summons, we will express the cause of the summons, and when the summons has thus been given the business shall proceed on the appointed day, on the advice of those who shall be present, even if not all of those who were summoned have come.

15. We will not grant to any one, moreover, that he should take an aid from his free men, except for ransoming his body, for making his oldest son a knight, and for once marrying his oldest daughter; and for these purposes only a reasonable aid shall be taken.

16. No one shall be compelled to perform any greater service for a knight's fee, or for any other free tenement than is owed from it.

17. The common pleas shall not follow our court, but shall be held in some certain place.

18. The assizes of *novel disseisin*, *mort d'ancestor*, and *darrein presentment* shall be held only in their own counties and in this manner: we, or, if we are outside of the kingdom, our principal justiciar, will send two justiciars through each county four times a year, who with four knights of each county, elected by the county, shall hold in the county and on the day and in the place of the county court, the aforesaid assizes of the county.

19. And if the aforesaid assizes cannot be held within the day of the county court, a sufficient number of knights and free-holders shall remain from those who were present at the county court on that day to give the judgments, according as the business is more or less.

20. A free man shall not be fined for a small offense, except in proportion to the measure of the offense; and for a great offense he shall be fined in proportion to the magnitude of the offense, saving his freehold; and a merchant in the same way, saving his merchandise; and the villain shall be fined in the same way, saving his wainage, if he shall be at our mercy; and none of the above fines shall be imposed except by the oaths of honest men of the neighborhood.

21. Earls and barons shall only be fined by their peers, and only in proportion to their offense.

22. A clergyman shall be fined, like those before mentioned, only in proportion to his lay holding, and not according to the extent of his ecclesiastical benefice.

23. No manor or man shall be compelled to make bridges over the rivers except those which ought to do it of old and rightfully.

24. No sheriff, constable, coroners, or other bailiffs of ours shall hold pleas of our crown.

25. All counties, hundreds, wapentakes, and tithings shall be at the ancient rents and without any increase, excepting our demesne manors.

26. If any person holding a lay fief from us shall die, and our sheriff or bailiff shall show our letters-patent of our summons concerning a debt which the deceased owed to us, it shall be lawful for our sheriff or bailiff to attach and levy on the chattels of the deceased found on his lay lief, to the value of that debt, in the view of legal men, so nevertheless that nothing be removed thence until the clear debt to us shall be paid; and the remainder shall be left to the executors for the fulfilment of the will of the deceased; and if nothing is owed to us by him, all the chattels shall go to the deceased, saving to his wife and children their reasonable shares.

27. If any free man dies intestate, his chattels shall be distributed by the hands of his near relatives and friends, under the oversight of the church, saving to each one the debts which the deceased owed to him.

28. No constable or other bailiff of ours shall take anyone's grain or other chattels, without immediately paying for them in money, unless he is able to obtain a postponement at the good-will of the seller.

29. No constable shall require any knight to give money in place of his ward of a castle if he is willing to furnish that ward in his own person or through another honest man, if he himself is not able to do it for a reasonable cause; and if we shall lead or send him into the army he shall be free from ward in proportion to the amount of time by which he has been in the army through us.

30. No sheriff or bailiff of ours or any one else shall take horses or wagons of any free man for carrying purposes except on the permission of that free man.

31. Neither we nor our bailiffs will take the wood of another man for castles, or for anything else which we are doing, except by the permission of him to whom the wood belongs.

32. We will not hold the lands of those convicted of a felony for more than a year and a day, after which the lands shall be returned to the lords of the fiefs.

33. All the fish-weirs in the Thames and the Medway, and throughout all England, shall be done away with, except those on the coast.

34. The writ which is called *Præcipe* shall not be given for the future to anyone concerning any tenement by which a free man can lose his court.

35. There shall be one measure of wine throughout our whole kingdom, and one measure of ale, and one measure of grain, that is the London quarter, and one width of dyed cloth and of russets and of balbergets, that is two ells within the selvages; of weights, moreover, it shall be as of measures.

36. Nothing shall henceforth be given or taken for a writ of inquisition concerning life or limbs, but it shall be given freely and not denied.

37. If anyone holds of us by fee farm or by soccage or by burgage, and from another he holds land by military service, we will not have the guardianship of the heir of his land which is of the fief of another, on account of that fee farm, or soccage, or burgage; nor will we have the custody of that fee farm, or soccage, or burgage, unless that fee farm itself owes military service. We

will not have the guardianship of the heir or of the land of anyone, which he holds from another by military service on account of any petty serjeanty which he holds from us by the service of paying to us knives or arrows, or things of that kind.

38. No bailiff for the future shall place anyone to his law on his simple affirmation without credible witnesses brought for this purpose.

39. No free man shall be taken or imprisoned or dispossessed, or outlawed, or banished, or in any way destroyed, nor will we go upon him, nor send upon him, except by the legal judgment of his peers or by the law of the land.

40. To no one will we sell, to no one will we deny, or delay right or justice.

41. All merchants shall be safe and secure in going out from England and coming into England and in remaining and going through England, as well by land as by water, for buying and selling, free from all evil tolls, by the ancient and rightful customs, except in time of war, and if they are of a land at war with us; and if such are found in our land at the beginning of war, they shall be attached without injury to their bodies or goods, until it shall be known from us or from our principal justiciar in what way the merchants of our land are treated who shall be then found in the country which is at war with us; and if ours are safe there, the others shall be safe in our land.

42. It is allowed henceforth to anyone to go out from our kingdom, and to return, safely and securely, by land and by water, saving their fidelity to us, except in time of war for some short time, for the common good of the kingdom; excepting persons imprisoned and outlawed according to the law of the realm, and people of a land at war with us, and merchants, of whom it shall be done as is before said.

43. If anyone holds from any escheat, as from the honour of Wallingford, or Nottingham, or Boulogne, or Lancaster, or from other escheats which are in our hands and are baronies, and he dies, his heir shall not give any other relief, nor do to us any other service than he would do to the baron, if that barony was in the hands of the baron; and we will hold it in the same way as the baron held it.

44. Men who dwell outside the forest shall not henceforth come before our justiciars of the forest, on common summons, unless they are in a plea of, or pledges for any person or persons who are arrested on account of the forest.

45. We will not make justiciars, constables, sheriffs or bailiffs except of such as know the law of the realm and are well inclined to observe it.

46. All barons who have founded abbeys for which they have charters of kings of England, or ancient tenure, shall have their custody when they have become vacant, as they ought to have.

47. All forests which have been afforested in our time shall be disafforested immediately; and so it shall be concerning river banks which in our time have been fenced in.

48. All the bad customs concerning forests and warrens and concerning foresters and warreners, sheriffs and their servants, river banks and their

guardians shall be inquired into immediately in each county by twelve sworn knights of the same county, who shall be elected by the honest men of the same county, and within fifty days after the inquisition has been made, they shall be entirely destroyed by them, never to be restored, provided that we be first informed of it, or our justiciar, if we are not in England.

49. We will give back immediately all hostages and charters which have been liberated to us by Englishmen as security for peace or for faithful service.

50. We will remove absolutely from their bailiwicks the relatives of Gerard de Athyes, so that for the future they shall have no bailiwick in England; Engelard de Cygony, Andrew, Peter and Gyon de Chancelles, Gyon de Cygony, Geoffrey de Martin and his brothers, Philip Mark and his brothers, and Geoffrey his nephew and their whole retinue.

51. And immediately after the re-establishment of peace we will remove from the kingdom all foreign-born soldiers, cross-bow men, servants, and mercenaries who have come with horses and arms for the injury of the realm.

52. If anyone shall have been dispossessed or removed by us without legal judgment of his peers, from his lands, castles, franchises, or his right we will restore them to him immediately; and if contention arises about this, then it shall be done according to the judgment of the twenty-five barons, of whom mention is made below concerning the security of the peace. Concerning all those things, however, from which anyone has been removed or of which he has been deprived without legal judgment of his peers by King Henry our father, or by King Richard our brother, which we have in our hand, or which others hold, and which it is our duty to guarantee, we shall have respite till the usual term of crusaders; excepting those things about which the suit has been begun or the inquisition made by our writ before our assumption of the cross; when, however, we shall return from our journey, or if by chance we desist from the journey, we will immediately show full justice in regard to them.

53. We shall, moreover have the same respite and in the same manner about showing justice in regard to the forests which are to be disafforested or to remain forests, which Henry our father or Richard our brother made into forests; and concerning the custody of lands which are in the fief of another, custody of which we have until now had on account of a fief which anyone has held from us by military service; and concerning the abbeys which have been founded in fiefs of others than ourselves, in which the lord of the fee has asserted for himself a right; and when we return or if we should desist from our journey we will immediately show full justice to those complaining in regard to them.

54. No one shall be seized nor imprisoned on the appeal of a woman concerning the death of any one except her husband.

55. All fines which have been imposed unjustly and against the law of the land, and all penalties imposed unjustly and against the law of the land are altogether excused, or will be on the judgment of the twenty-five barons of whom mention is made below in connection with the security of the peace, or on

the judgment of the majority of them, along with the aforesaid Stephen, archbishop of Canterbury, if he is able to be present, and others whom he may wish to call for this purpose along with him. And if he should not be able to be present, nevertheless the business shall go on without him, provided that if any one or more of the aforesaid twenty-five barons are in a similar suit they should be removed as far as this particular judgment goes, and others who shall be chosen and put upon oath, by the remainder of the twenty-five shall be substituted for them for this purpose.

56. If we have dispossessed or removed any Welshmen from their lands, or franchises, or other things, without legal judgment of their peers, in England, or in Wales, they shall be immediately returned to them; and if a dispute shall have arisen over this, then it shall be settled in the borderland by judgment of their peers, concerning holdings of England according to the law of England, concerning holdings of Wales according to the law of Wales, and concerning holdings of the borderland according to the law of the borderland. The Welsh shall do the same to us and ours.

57. Concerning all these things, however, from which any one of the Welsh shall have been removed or dispossessed without legal judgment of his peers, by King Henry our father, or King Richard our brother, which we hold in our hands, or which others hold, and we are bound to warrant to them, we shall have respite till the usual period of crusaders, those being excepted about which suit was begun or inquisition made by our command before our assumption of the cross. When, however, we shall return or if by chance we shall desist from our journey, we will show full justice to them immediately, according to the laws of the Welsh and the aforesaid parts.

58. We will give back the son of Lewellyn immediately, and all the hostages from Wales and the charters which had been liberated to us as a security for peace.

59. We will act toward Alexander, king of the Scots, concerning the return of his sisters and his hostages, and concerning his franchises and his right, according to the manner in which we shall act toward our other barons of England, unless it ought to be otherwise by the charters which we hold from William his father, formerly king of the Scots, and this shall be by the judgment of his peers in our court.

60. Moreover, all those customs and franchises mentioned above which we have conceded in our kingdom, and which are to be fulfilled, as far as pertains to us, in respect to our men; all men of our kingdom as well clergy as laymen, shall observe as far as pertains to them, in respect to their men.

61. Since, moreover, for the sake of God, and for the improvement of our kingdom, and for the better quieting of the hostility sprung up lately between us and our barons, we have made all these concessions; wishing them to enjoy these in a complete and firm stability forever, we make and concede to them the security described below; that is to say, that they shall elect twenty-five

barons of the kingdom, whom they will, who ought with all their power to observe, hold, and cause to be observed, the peace and liberties which we have conceded to them, and by this our present charter confirmed to them; in this manner, that if we or our justiciar, or our bailiffs, or any one of our servants shall have done wrong in any way toward any one, or shall have transgressed any of the articles of peace or security; and the wrong shall have been shown to four barons of the aforesaid twenty-five barons, let those four barons come to us or to our justiciar, if we are out of the kingdom, laying before us the transgression, and let them ask that we cause that transgression to be corrected without delay. And if we shall not have corrected the transgression, or if we shall be out of the kingdom, if our justiciar shall not have corrected it within a period of forty days, counting from the time in which it has been shown to us or to our justiciar, if we are out of the kingdom; the aforesaid four barons shall refer the matter to the remainder of the twenty-five barons, and let these twenty-five barons with the whole community of the country distress and injure us in every way they can; that is to say by the seizure of our castles, lands, possessions, and in such other ways as they can until it shall have been corrected according to their judgment, saving our person and that of our queen, and those of our children; and when the correction has been made, let them devote themselves to us as they did before. And let whoever in the country wishes take an oath that in all the above-mentioned measures he will obey the orders of the aforesaid twenty-five barons, and that he will injure us as far as he is able with them, and we give permission to swear publicly and freely to each one who wishes to swear, and no one will we ever forbid to swear. All those, moreover, in the country who of themselves and their own will are unwilling to take an oath to the twenty-five barons as to distressing and injuring us along with them, we will compel to take the oath by our mandate, as before said. And if any one of the twenty-five barons shall have died or departed from the land or shall in any other way be prevented from taking the above-mentioned action, let the remainder of the aforesaid twenty-five barons choose another in his place, according to their judgment, who shall take an oath in the same way as the others. In all those things, moreover, which are committed to those five and twenty barons to carry out, if perhaps the twenty-five are present, and some disagreement arises among them about something, or if any of them when they have been summoned are not willing or are not able to be present, let that be considered valid and firm which the greater part of those who are present arrange or command, just as if the whole twenty-five had agreed in this; and let the aforesaid twenty-five swear that they will observe faithfully all the things which are said above, and with all their ability cause them to be observed. And we will obtain nothing from anyone, either by ourselves or by another by which any of these concessions and liberties shall be revoked or diminished; and if any such thing shall have been obtained, let it be invalid and void, and we will never use it by ourselves or by another.

62. And all ill-will, grudges, and anger sprung up between us and our men, clergy and laymen, from the time of the dispute, we have fully renounced and pardoned to all. Moreover, all transgressions committed on account of this dispute, from Easter in the sixteenth year of our reign till the restoration of peace, we have fully remitted to all, clergy and laymen, and as far as pertains to us, fully pardoned. And moreover we have caused to be made for them testimonial letters-patent of lord Stephen, archbishop of Canterbury, lord Henry, archbishop of Dublin, and of the aforesaid bishops and of master Pandulf, in respect to that security and the concession named above.

Wherefore we will and firmly command that the Church of England shall be free, and that the men of our kingdom shall have and hold all the aforesaid liberties, rights and concessions, well and peacefully, freely and quietly, fully and completely, for themselves and their heirs, from us and our heirs, in all things and places, forever, as before said. It has been sworn, moreover, as well on our part as on the part of the barons, that all these things spoken of above shall be observed in good faith and without any evil intent. Witness the above named and many others. Given by our hand in the meadow which is called Runnymede, between Windsor and Staines, on the fifteenth day of June, in the seventeenth year of our reign.

PETITION OF RIGHT.

(JUNE 7, 1628.)

[SECOND GREAT CHARTER OF ENGLISH LIBERTY.]

The Petition Exhibited to His Majesty by the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons in this Present Parliament Assembled, Concerning Divers Rights and Liberties of the Subjects, with the King's Majesty's Royal Answer Thereunto in Full Parliament

To the King's Most Excellent Majesty.

Humbly show unto our Sovereign Lord the King, the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons in Parliament assembled, that whereas it is declared and enacted by a statute made in the time of the reign of King Edward the First, commonly called *Statutum de Tallagio non concedendo*, that no tallage or aid shall be laid or levied by the King or his heirs in this realm, without the goodwill and assent of the Archbishops, Bishops, Earls, Barons, Knights, Burgesses, and other the freemen of the commonality of this realm: and by authority of Parliament holden in the five and twentieth year of the reign of King Edward the Third, it is declared and enacted, that from thenceforth no person shall be compelled to make any loans to the King against his will, because such loans

were against reason and the franchise of the land; and by other laws of this realm it is provided, that none should be charged by any charge or imposition, called a Benevolence, or by such like charge, by which the statutes before-mentioned, and other the good laws and statutes of this realm, your subjects have inherited this freedom, that they should not be compelled to contribute to any tax, tallage, aid, or other like charge, not set by common consent in Parliament:

Yet nevertheless, of late divers commissions directed to sundry Commissioners in several counties with instructions have issued, by means whereof your people have been in divers places assembled, and required to lend certain sums of money unto your Majesty, and many of them upon their refusal so to do, have had an oath administered unto them, not warrantable by the laws or statutes of this realm, and have been constrained to become bound to make appearance and give attendance before your Privy Council, and in other places, and others of them have been therefore imprisoned, confined, and sundry other ways molested and disquieted: and divers other charges have been laid and levied upon your people in several counties, by Lords Lieutenants, Deputy Lieutenants, Commissioners for Musters, Justices of Peace and others, by command or direction from your Majesty or your Privy Council, against the laws and free customs of this realm:

And where also by the statute called, 'The Great Charter of the Liberties of England,' it is declared and enacted, that no freeman may be taken or imprisoned or be disseised of his freeholds or liberties, or his free customs, or be outlawed or exiled; or in any manner destroyed, but by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land:

And in the eight and twentieth year of the reign of King Edward the Third, it was declared and enacted by authority of Parliament, that no man of what estate or condition that he be, should be put out of his land or tenements, nor taken, nor imprisoned, nor disherited, nor put to death, without being brought to answer by due process of law:

Nevertheless, against the tenor of the said statutes, and other the good laws and statutes of your realm, to that end provided, divers of your subjects have of late been imprisoned without any cause showed, and when for their deliverance they were brought before your Justices, by your Majesty's writs of Habeas Corpus, there to undergo and receive as the Court should order, and their keepers commanded to certify the causes of their detainer; no cause was certified, but that they were detained by your Majesty's special command, signified by the Lords of your Privy Council, and yet were returned back to several prisons, without being charged with anything to which they might make answer according to the law:

And whereas of late great companies of soldiers and mariners have been dispersed into divers counties of the realm, and the inhabitants against their wills have been compelled to receive them into their houses, and there to suffer them to sojourn, against the laws and customs of this realm, and to the great grievance and vexation of the people:

And whereas also by authority of Parliament, in the five and twentieth year of the reign of King Edward the Third, it is declared and enacted, that no man shall be forejudged of life or limb against the form of the Great Charter, and the law of the land: and by the said Great Charter and other the laws and statutes of this your realm, no man ought to be adjudged to death; but by the laws established in this your realm, either by the customs of the same realm or by Acts of Parliament: and whereas no offender of what kind soever is exempted from the proceedings to be used, and punishments to be inflicted by the laws and statutes of this your realm: nevertheless of late time divers commissions under your Majesty's Great Seal have issued forth, by which certain persons have been assigned and appointed Commissioners with power and authority to proceed within the land according to the justice of martial law against such soldiers or mariners, or other dissolute persons joining with them, as should commit any murder, robbery, felony, mutiny, or other outrage or misdemeanour whatsoever, and by such summary course and order, as is agreeable to martial law, and is used in armies in time of war, to proceed to the trial and condemnation of such offenders, and them to cause to be executed and put to death, according to the law martial:

By pretext whereof, some of your Majesty's subjects have been by some of the said Commissioners put to death, when and where, if by the laws and statutes of the land they had deserved death, by the same laws and statutes also they might, and by no other ought to have been, judged and executed:

And also sundry grievous offenders by colour thereof, claiming an exemption, have escaped the punishments due to them by the laws and statutes of this your realm, by reason that divers of your officers and ministers of justice have unjustly refused, or forborne to proceed against such offenders according to the same laws and statutes, upon pretence that the said offenders were punishable only by martial law, and by authority of such commissions as aforesaid, which commissions, and all other of like nature, are wholly and directly contrary to the said laws and statutes of this your realm:

They do therefore humbly pray your Most Excellent Majesty, that no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or such like charge, without common consent by Act of Parliament; and that none be called to make answer, or take such oath, or to give attendance, or be confined, or otherwise molested or disquieted concerning the same, or for refusal thereof; and that no freeman, in any such manner as is before-mentioned, be imprisoned or detained; and that your Majesty will be pleased to remove the said soldiers and mariners, and that your people may not be so burdened in time to come; and that the aforesaid commissions for proceeding by martial law, may be revoked and annulled; and that hereafter no commissions of like nature may issue forth to any person or persons whatsoever, to be executed as aforesaid, lest by colour of them any of your Majesty's subjects be destroyed or put to death, contrary to the laws and franchise of the land.

All which they most humbly pray of your Most Excellent Majesty, as their rights and liberties according to the laws and statutes of this realm: and that your Majesty would also vouchsafe to declare, that the awards, doings, and proceedings to the prejudice of your people, in any of the premises, shall not be drawn hereafter into consequence or example: and that your Majesty would be also graciously pleased, for the further comfort and safety of your people, to declare your royal will and pleasure, that in the things aforesaid all your officers and ministers shall serve you, according to the laws and statutes of this realm, as they tender the honour of your Majesty, and the prosperity of this kingdom.

[The King's first answer, June 2, 1628:

The King willeth that right be done according to the laws and customs of the realm; and that the statutes be put in due execution, that his subjects may have no cause to complain of any wrong or oppressions, contrary to their just rights and liberties, to the preservation whereof he holds himself as well obliged as of his prerogative.

The King's second answer, June 7, 1628:

Soit droit fait comme il est désiré.]

HABEAS CORPUS ACT.

(1679.)

[AN ACT FOR PERSONAL SECURITY AGAINST ARBITRARY ARRESTS.]

An Act for the better securing the Liberty of the Subject, and for Prevention of Imprisonments beyond the Seas.

I. Whereas great delays have been used by sheriffs, gaolers, and other officers, to whose custody any of the king's subjects have been committed for criminal or supposed criminal matters, in making returns of writs of *Habeas Corpus* to them directed, by standing out an *Alias* and *Pluries Habeas Corpus*, and sometimes more, and by other shifts to avoid their yielding obedience to such writs, contrary to their duty and the known laws of the land, whereby many of the king's subjects have been and hereafter may be long detained in prison, in such cases where by law they are bailable, to their great charges and vexation:

II. For the prevention whereof, and the more speedy relief of all persons imprisoned for any such criminal or supposed criminal matters; be it enacted by the King's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority thereof, that whensoever any person or persons shall bring any *Habeas Corpus* directed unto any sheriff or sheriffs, gaoler,

minister, or other person whatsoever, for any person in his or their custody, and the said writ shall be served upon the said officer, or left at the gaol or prison with any of the under-officers, under-keepers or deputy of the said officers or keepers, that the said officer or officers, his or their under-officers, under-keepers or deputies, shall within three days after the service thereof as aforesaid (unless the commitment aforesaid were for treason or felony, plainly and specially expressed in the warrant of commitment) upon payment or tender of the charges of bringing the said prisoner, to be ascertained by the judge or court that awarded the same, and endorsed upon the said writ, not exceeding twelve pence per mile, and upon security given by his own bond to pay the charges of carrying back the prisoner, if he shall be remanded by the court or judge to which he shall be brought according to the true intent of this present act, and that he will not make any escape by the way, make return of such writ; and bring or cause to be brought the body of the party so committed or restrained, unto or before the Lord Chancellor, or Lord Keeper of the great seal of England for the time being, or the judges or barons of the said court from whence the said writ shall issue, or unto and before such other person or persons before whom the said writ is made returnable, according to the command thereof; and shall then likewise certify the true causes of his detainer or imprisonment, unless the commitment of the said party be in any place beyond the distance of twenty miles from the place or places where such court or person is or shall be residing; and if beyond the distance of twenty miles, and not above one hundred miles, then within the space of ten days, and if beyond the distance of one hundred miles, then within the space of twenty days, after the delivery aforesaid, and not longer.

III. And to the intent that no sheriff, gaoler or other officer may pretend ignorance of the import of any such writ; be it enacted by the authority aforesaid, that all such writs shall be marked in this manner, *per statutum tricesimo primo Caroli secundi regis*, and shall be signed by the person that awards the same; and if any person or persons shall be or stand committed or detained as aforesaid, for any crime, unless for treason or felony plainly expressed in the warrant of commitment, in the vacation-time, and out of term, it shall and may be lawful to and for the person or persons so committed or detained (other than persons convict or in execution) by legal process or any one on his or their behalf, to appeal or complain to the Lord Chancellor or Lord Keeper, or any one of his Majesty's justices, either of the one bench or of the other, or the barons of the exchequer of the degree of the coif; and the said Lord Chancellor, Lord Keeper, justices or barons or any of them, upon view of the copy or copies of the warrant or warrants of commitment and detainer, or otherwise upon oath made that such copy or copies were denied to be given by such person or persons in whose custody the prisoner or prisoners is or are detained, are hereby authorized, and required, upon request made in writing by such person or persons or any on his, her or their behalf, attested and subscribed by two witnesses who

were present at the delivery of the same, to award and grant an *Habeas Corpus* under the seal of such court whereof he shall then be one of the judges, to be directed to the officer or officers in whose custody the party so committed or detained shall be, returnable immediate before the said Lord Chancellor or Lord Keeper, or such justice, baron or any other justice or baron, of the degree of the coif of any of the said courts; and upon service thereof as aforesaid, the officer or officers, his or their under-officer or under-officers, under-keeper or under-keepers, or their deputy, in whose custody the party is so committed or detained, shall within the times respectively before limited, bring such prisoner or prisoners before the said Lord Chancellor or Lord Keeper, or such justices, barons, or one of them, before whom the said writ is made returnable, and in case of his absence before any of them, with the return of such writ, and the true causes of the commitment and detainer; and thereupon within two days after the party shall be brought before them, the said Lord Chancellor or Lord Keeper, or such justice or baron before whom the prisoner shall be brought as aforesaid, shall discharge the said prisoner from his imprisonment, taking his or their recognizance, with one or more surety or sureties, in any sum according to their discretions, having regard to the quality of the prisoner and nature of the offence, for his or their appearance in the court of king's bench the term following, or at the next assizes, sessions, or general gaol-delivery of and for such county, city, or place where the commitment was, or where the offence was committed, or in such other court where the said offence is properly cognizable, as the case shall require, and then shall certify the said writ with the return thereof, and the said recognizance or recognizances into the said court where such appearance is to be made; unless it shall appear unto the said Lord Chancellor or Lord Keeper, or justice or justices, or baron or barons, that the party so committed is detained upon a legal process, order or warrant, out of some court that hath jurisdiction of criminal matters, or by some warrant signed and sealed with the hand and seal of any of the said justices or barons, or some justice or justices of the peace, for such matters or offences for the which by the law the prisoner is not bailable.

IV. Provided always, and be it enacted, that if any person shall have wilfully neglected by the space of two whole terms after his imprisonment, to pray a *Habeas Corpus* for his enlargement, such person so wilfully neglecting shall not have any *Habeas Corpus* to be granted in vacation-time, in pursuance of this act.

V. And be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, that if any officer or officers, his or their under-officer or under-officers, under-keeper or under-keepers, or deputy, shall neglect or refuse to make the returns aforesaid, or to bring the body or bodies of the prisoner or prisoners according to the command of the said writ, within the respective times aforesaid, or upon demand made by the prisoner or person in his behalf, shall refuse to deliver, or within the space of six hours after demand shall not deliver, to the person so demanding, a true copy of the warrant or warrants of commitment and detainer of such prisoner,

directed and run into any county palatine, the cinque-ports, or other privileged places within the kingdom of England, dominion of Wales, or town of Berwick upon Tweed, and the islands of Jersey or Guernsey; any law or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.

XII. And for preventing illegal imprisonments in prisons beyond the seas; be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, that no subject of this realm that now is, or hereafter shall be an inhabitant or resiant of this kingdom of England, dominion of Wales, or town of Berwick upon Tweed, shall or may be sent prisoner into Scotland, Ireland, Jersey, Guernsey, Tangier, or into parts, garrisons, islands or places beyond the seas, which are or at any time hereafter shall be within or without the dominions of his Majesty, his heirs or successors; and that every such imprisonment is hereby enacted and adjudged to be illegal: and that if any of the said subjects now is or hereafter shall be so imprisoned, every such person and persons so imprisoned, shall and may for every such imprisonment maintain by virtue of this act an action or actions of false imprisonment, in any of his Majesty's courts of record, against the person or persons by whom he or she shall be so committed, detained, imprisoned, sent prisoner or transported, contrary to the true meaning of this act, and against all or any person or persons that shall frame, contrive, write, seal or countersign any warrant or writing for such commitment, detainer, imprisonment, or transportation, or shall be advising, aiding or assisting in the same, or any of them; and the plaintiff in every such action shall have judgment to recover his treble costs, besides damages, which damages so to be given, shall not be less than five hundred pounds; in which action no delay, stay or stop of proceeding by rule, order or command, nor no injunction, protection or privilege whatsoever, nor any more than one imparlance shall be allowed, excepting such rule of the court wherein the action shall depend, made in open court, as shall be thought in justice necessary, for special cause to be expressed in the said rule; and the person or persons who shall knowingly frame, contrive, write, seal or countersign any warrant for such commitment, detainer, or transportation, or shall so commit, detain, imprison or transport any person or persons contrary to this act, or be any ways advising, aiding or assisting therein, being lawfully convicted thereof, shall be disabled from thenceforth to bear any office of trust or profit within the said realm of England, dominion of Wales, or town of Berwick upon Tweed, or any of the islands, territories or dominions thereunto belonging; and shall incur and sustain the pains, penalties, and forfeitures limited, ordained and provided in and by the statute of Provision and *Præmunire* made in the sixteenth year of King Richard the Second; and be incapable of any pardon from the king, his heirs or successors, of the said forfeitures, losses, or disabilities, or any of them.

XIII. Provided always, that nothing in this act shall extend to give benefit to any person who shall by contract in writing agree with any merchant or owner of any plantation, or other person whatsoever, to be transported to any

parts beyond the seas, and receive earnest upon such agreement, although that afterwards such persons shall renounce such contract .

XIV. Provided always, and be it enacted, that if any person or persons lawfully convicted of any felony, shall in open court pray to be transported beyond the seas, and the court shall think fit to leave him or them in prison for that purpose, such person or persons may be transported into any parts beyond the seas; this act, or anything therein contained to the contrary notwithstanding.

XV. Provided also, and be it enacted, that nothing herein contained shall be deemed, construed or taken, to extend to the imprisonment of any person before the first day of June one thousand six hundred seventy and nine, or to anything advised, procured, or otherwise done, relating to such imprisonment; anything herein contained to the contrary notwithstanding.

XVI. Provided also, that if any person or persons at any time resiant in this realm, shall have committed any capital offence in Scotland or Ireland, or any of the islands, or foreign plantations of the king, his heirs or successors, where he or she ought to be tried for such offence, such person or persons may be sent to such place, there to receive such trial, in such manner as the same might have been used before the making of this act; anything herein contained to the contrary notwithstanding.

XVII. Provided also, and be it enacted, that no person or persons shall be sued, imp'eaded, molested or troubled for any offence against this act, unless the party offending be sued or impleaded for the same within two years at the most after such time wherein the offence shall be committed, in case the party grieved shall not be then in prison; and if he shall be in prison, then within the space of two years after the decease of the person imprisoned, or his or her delivery out of prison, which shall first happen.

XVIII. And to the intent no person may avoid his trial at the assizes or general gaol-delivery, by procuring his removal before the assizes, at such time as he cannot be brought back to receive his trial there; be it enacted, that after the assizes proclaimed for that county where the prisoner is detained, no person shall be removed from the common gaol upon any *Habeas Corpus* granted in pursuance of this act, but upon any such *Habeas Corpus* shall be brought before the judge of assize in open court, who is thereupon to do what to justice shall appertain.

XIX. Provided nevertheless, that after the assizes are ended, any person or persons detained, may have his or her *Habeas Corpus* according to the direction and intention of this act.

XX. And be it also enacted by the authority aforesaid, that if any information, suit or action shall be brought or exhibited against any person or persons for any offence committed or to be committed against the form of this law, it shall be lawful for such defendants to plead the general issue, that they are not guilty, or that they owe nothing, and to give such special matter in evidence to the jury that shall try the same, which matter being pleaded had been good

and sufficient matter in law to have discharged the said defendant or defendants against the said information, suit or action, and the said matter shall be then as available to him or them, to all intents or purposes, as if he or they had sufficiently pleaded, set forth or alleged the same matter in bar or discharge of such information, suit or action.

XXI. And because many times persons charged with petty treason or felony, or as accessaries thereunto, are committed upon suspicion only, whereupon they are bailable, or not, according as the circumstances making out that suspicion are more or less weighty, which are best known to the justices of peace that committed the persons, and have the examinations before them, or to other justices of peace in the county: be it therefore enacted, that where any person shall appear to be committed by any judge or justice of the peace, and charged as accessory before the fact, to any petty treason, or felony, or upon suspicion thereof, or with suspicion of petty treason or felony, which petty treason or felony shall be plainly and specially expressed in the warrant of commitment, that such person shall not be removed or bailed by virtue of this act, or in any other manner than they might have been before the making of this act.

BILL OF RIGHTS.

(1689.)

[THIRD GREAT CHARTER OF ENGLISH LIBERTY.]

An Act Declaring the Rights and Liberties of the Subject and Settling the Succession of the Crown.

Whereas the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, assembled at Westminster, lawfully, fully, and freely representing all the estates of the people of this realm, did, upon the thirteenth day of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand six hundred eighty-eight, present unto their Majesties, then called and known by the names and style of William and Mary, Prince and Princess of Orange, being present in their proper persons, a certain declaration in writing, made by the said Lords and Commons, in the words following; viz:—

Whereas the late King James II., by the assistance of diverse evil counsellors, judges, and ministers employed by him, did endeavour to subvert and extirpate the Protestant religion, and the laws and liberties of this kingdom:—

1. By assuming and exercising a power of dispensing with and suspending of laws, and the execution of laws, without consent of Parliament.

2. By committing and prosecuting divers worthy prelates, for humbly petitioning to be excused from concurring to the same assumed power.

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3. By issuing and causing to be executed a commission under the Great Seal for erecting a court, called the Court of Commissioners for Ecclesiastical Causes.

4. By levying money for and to the use of the Crown, by pretence of prerogative, for other time, and in other manner than the same was granted by Parliament.

5. By raising and keeping a standing army within this kingdom in time of peace, without consent of Parliament, and quartering soldiers contrary to law.

6. By causing several good subjects, being Protestants, to be disarmed, at the same time when Papists were both armed and employed contrary to law.

7. By violating the freedom of election of members to serve in Parliament.

8. By prosecutions in the Court of King's Bench, for matters and causes cognizable only in Parliament; and by diverse other arbitrary and illegal courses.

9. And whereas of late years, partial, corrupt, and unqualified persons have been returned and served on juries in trials, and particularly diverse jurors in trials for high treason, which were not freeholders.

10. And excessive bail hath been required of persons committed in criminal cases, to elude the benefit of the laws made for the liberty of the subjects.

11. And excessive fines have been imposed.

12. And illegal and cruel punishments inflicted.

13. And several grants and promises made of fines and forfeitures, before any conviction or judgment against the persons upon whom the same were to be levied.

All which are utterly and directly contrary to the known laws and statutes, and freedom of this realm.

And whereas the said late King James II. having abdicated the government, and the throne being thereby vacant, his Highness the Prince of Orange (whom it hath pleased Almighty God to make the glorious instrument of delivering this kingdom from popery and arbitrary power) did (by the advice of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and diverse principal persons of the Commons) cause letters to be written to the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, being Protestants, and other letters to the several counties, cities, universities, boroughs, and cinque ports, for the choosing of such persons to represent them, as were of right to be sent to Parliament, to meet and sit at Westminster upon the two-and-twentieth day of January, in this year one thousand six hundred eighty and eight, in order to such an establishment, as that their religion, laws and liberties might not again be in danger of being subverted; upon which letters, elections have been accordingly made.

And thereupon the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, pursuant to their respective letters and elections, being now assembled in a full and free representation of this nation, taking into their most serious consideration the best means for attaining the ends aforesaid, do in the first place (as their ancestors in like case have usually done), for the vindicating and asserting their ancient rights and liberties, declare:—

1. That the pretended power of suspending of laws, or the execution of laws, by regal authority, without consent of parliament, is illegal.

2. That the pretended power of dispensing with laws, or the execution of laws by regal authority, as it hath been assumed and exercised of late, is illegal.

3. That the commission for erecting the late Court of Commissioners for Ecclesiastical causes, and all other commissions and courts of like nature, are illegal and pernicious.

4. That levying money for or to the use of the Crown, by pretence of prerogative, without grant of parliament, for longer time or in other manner than the same is or shall be granted, is illegal.

5. That it is the right of the subjects to petition the king, and all commitments and prosecutions for such petitioning are illegal.

6. That the raising or keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, unless it be with consent of parliament, is against law.

7. That the subjects which are Protestants may have arms for their defence suitable to their conditions, and as allowed by law.

8. That election of members of parliament ought to be free.

9. That the freedom of speech, and debates or proceedings in parliament, ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of parliament.

10. That excessive bail ought not to be required, nor excessive fines imposed; nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

11. That jurors ought to be duly impanelled and returned, and jurors which pass upon men in trials for high treason ought to be freeholders.

12. That all grants and promises of fines and forfeitures of particular persons before conviction, are illegal and void.

13. And that for redress of all grievances, and for the amending, strengthening, and preserving of the laws, parliaments ought to be held frequently.

And they do claim, demand, and insist upon all and singular the premises, as their undoubted rights and liberties; and that no declarations, judgments, doings or proceedings, to the prejudice of the people in any of the said premises, ought in any wise to be drawn hereafter into consequence or example.

To which demand of their rights they are particularly encouraged by the declaration of his Highness the Prince of Orange, as being the only means for obtaining a full redress and remedy therein.

Having therefore an entire confidence that his said Highness the Prince of Orange will perfect the deliverance so far advanced by him, and will still preserve them from the violation of their rights, which they have here asserted, and from all other attempts upon their religion, rights, and liberties:

II. The said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, assembled at Westminster, do resolve, that William and Mary, Prince and Princess of Orange, be, and be declared, King and Queen of England, France, and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging, to hold the Crown and royal dignity of the said kingdoms and dominions to them the said Prince and Princess during their lives,

and the life of the survivor of them; and that the sole and full exercise of the regal power be only in, and executed by, the said Prince of Orange, in the names of the said Prince and Princess, during their joint lives; and after their deceases, the said Crown and royal dignity of the said kingdoms and dominions to be to the heirs of the body of the said Princess; and for default of such issue to the Princess Anne of Denmark, and the heirs of her body and for default of such issue to the heirs of the body of the said Prince of Orange. And the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, do pray the said Prince and Princess to accept the same accordingly.

III. And that the oaths hereafter mentioned be taken by all persons of whom the oaths of allegiance and supremacy might be required by law, instead of them; and that the said oaths of allegiance and supremacy be abrogated.

I, A. B., do sincerely promise and swear, That I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to their Majesties King William and Queen Mary:

So help me God.

I, A. B., do swear, That I do from my heart, abhor, detest, and abjure as impious and heretical, that damnable doctrine and position, that Princes excommunicated or deprived by the Pope, or any authority of the See of Rome, may be deposed or murdered by their subjects, or any other whatsoever. And I do declare, that no foreign prince, person, prelate, state, or potentate hath, or ought to have, any jurisdiction, power, superiority, pre-eminence, or authority ecclesiastical or spiritual, within this realm:

So help me God.

IV. Upon which their said Majesties did accept the Crown and royal dignity of the kingdoms of England, France, and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging, according to the resolution and desire of the said Lords and Commons contained in the said declaration.

V. And thereupon their Majesties were pleased, that the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, being the two Houses of Parliament, should continue to sit, and with their Majesties' royal concurrence make effectual provision for the settlement of the religion, laws, and liberties of this kingdom, so that the same for the future might not be in danger again of being subverted; to which the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, did agree and proceed to act accordingly.

VI. Now in pursuance of the premises, the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in parliament assembled, for the ratifying, confirming, and establishing the said declaration, and the articles, clauses, matters, and things therein contained, by the force of a law made in due form by authority of parliament, do pray that it may be declared and enacted, That all and singular the rights and liberties asserted and claimed in the said declaration, are the true, ancient, and indubitable rights and liberties of the people of this

kingdom, and so shall be esteemed, allowed, adjudged, deemed, and taken to be, and that all and every the particulars aforesaid shall be firmly and strictly holden and observed, as they are expressed in the said declaration; and all officers and ministers whatsoever shall serve their Majesties and their successors according to the same in all times to come.

VII. And the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, seriously considering how it hath pleased Almighty God, in his marvellous providence, and merciful goodness to this nation, to provide and preserve their said Majesties' royal persons most happily to reign over us upon the throne of their ancestors, for which they render unto Him from the bottom of their hearts their humblest thanks and praises, do truly, firmly, assuredly, and in the sincerity of their hearts, think, and do hereby recognize, acknowledge, and declare, that King James II. having abdicated the government, and their Majesties having accepted the Crown and royal dignity aforesaid, their said Majesties did become, were, are, and of right ought to be, by the laws of this realm, our sovereign liege Lord and Lady, King and Queen of England, France, and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging, in and to whose princely persons the royal State, Crown, and dignity of the same realms, with all honours, styles, titles, regalities, prerogatives, powers, jurisdictions and authorities to the same belonging and appertaining, are most fully, rightfully, and entirely invested and incorporated, united and annexed.

VIII. And for preventing all questions and divisions in this realm, by reason of any pretended titles to the Crown, and for preserving a certainty in the succession thereof, in and upon which the unity, peace, tranquillity, and safety of this nation doth, under God, wholly consist and depend, the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, do beseech their Majesties that it may be enacted, established, and declared, that the Crown and regal government of the said kingdoms and dominions, with all and singular the premises thereunto belonging and appertaining, shall be and continue to their said Majesties, and the survivor of them, during their lives, and the life of the survivor of them. And that the entire, perfect, and full exercises of the regal power and government be only in, and executed by, his Majesty, in the names of both their Majesties during their joint lives; and after their deceases the said Crown and premises shall be and remain to the heirs of the body of her Majesty: and for default of such issue, to her Royal Highness the Princess Anne of Denmark, and the heirs of her body; and for default of such issue, to the heirs of the body of his said Majesty: and thereunto the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, do, in the name of all the people aforesaid, most humbly and faithfully submit themselves, their heirs and posterities, for ever: and do faithfully promise, That they will stand to, maintain, and defend their said Majesties, and also the limitation and succession of the Crown herein specified and contained, to the utmost of their powers, with their lives and estates, against all persons whatsoever that shall attempt anything to the contrary.

IX. And whereas it hath been found by experience, that it is inconsistent with the safety and welfare of this Protestant kingdom, to be governd by a Popish prince, or by any king or queen marrying a Papist, the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, do further pray that it may be enacted, That all and every person and persons that is, are, or shall be reconciled to, or shall hold communion with, the See or Church of Rome, or shall profess the Popish religion, or shall marry a Papist, shall be excluded, and be for ever incapable to inherit, possess, or enjoy the Crown and government of this realm, and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging, or any part of the same, or to have, use, or exercise any regal power, authority, or jurisdiction within the same; and in all and every such case or cases the people of these realms shall be and are hereby absolved of their allegiance; and the said Crown and Government shall from time to time descend to, and be enjoyed by, such person or persons, being Protestants, as should have inherited and enjoyed the same, in case the said person or persons so reconciled, holding communion, or professing, or marrying as aforesaid, were naturally dead.

X. And that every king and queen of this realm, who at any time hereafter shall come to succeed in the Imperial Crown of this kingdom, shall, on the first day of the meeting of the first parliament, next after his or her coming to the Crown, sitting in his or her throne in the House of Peers, in the presence of the Lords and Commons therein assembled, or at his or her coronation, before such person or persons who shall administer the coronation oath to him or her, at the time of his or her taking the said oath (which shall first happen), make, subscribe, and audibly repeat the declaration mentioned in the statute made in the thirtieth year of the reign of King Charles II., intituled 'An Act for the more effectual preserving the King's person and government, by disabling Papists from sitting in either House of Parliament.' But if it shall happen, that such king or queen, upon his or her succession to the Crown of this realm, shall be under the age of twelve years, then every such king or queen shall make, subscribe, and audibly repeat the said declaration at his or her coronation, or the first day of the meeting of the first parliament as aforesaid, which shall first happen after such king or queen shall have attained the said age of twelve years.

XI. All which their Majesties are contented and pleased shall be declared, enacted, and established by authority of this present parliament, and shall stand, remain, and be the law of this realm for ever; and the same are by their said Majesties, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, declared, enacted, and established accordingly.

XII. And be it further declared and enacted by the authority aforesaid, That from and after this present session of parliament, no dispensation by *non obstante* of or to any statute, or any part thereof, shall be allowed, but that the same shall be held void and of no effect, except a dispensation be allowed of in

such statute, and except in such cases as shall be specially provided for by one or more bill or bills to be passed during this present session of parliament.

XIII. Provided that no charter, or grant, or pardon granted before the three-and-twentieth day of October, in the year of our Lord One thousand six hundred eighty-nine, shall be any ways impeached or invalidated by this act, but that the same shall be and remain of the same force and effect in law, and no other, than as if this act had never been made.

ACT OF SETTLEMENT.

(1701.)

An Act for the Further Limitation of the Crown, and Better Securing the Rights and Liberties of the Subject.

Whereas in the first year of the reign of your Majesty, and of our late most Gracious Sovereign Lady Queen Mary (of blessed memory) an Act of Parliament was made, intituled "An Act for declaring the Rights and Liberties of the Subject, and for settling the Succession of the Crown," wherein it was (amongst other things) enacted, established and declared, That the Crown and Regal Government of the kingdoms of England, France and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging, should be and continue to your Majesty and the said late Queen, during the joint-lives of your Majesty and the said Queen, and to the survivor: And that after the decease of your Majesty and of the said Queen, the said Crown and Regal Government should be and remain to the heirs of the body of the said late Queen: And for default of such issue, to her Royal Highness the Princess Anne of Denmark, and the heirs of her body: And for default of such issue, to the heirs of the body of your Majesty. And it was thereby further enacted, That all and every person and persons that then were, or afterwards should be reconciled to, or shall hold communion with the See or Church of Rome, or should profess the Popish religion, or marry a Papist, should be excluded, and are by that act made for ever uncapable to inherit, possess, or enjoy the Crown and Government of this realm and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging, or any part of the same, or to have, use, or exercise any regal power, authority, or jurisdiction within the same: and in all and every such case and cases the people of these realms shall be and are thereby absolved of their allegiance: And that the said Crown and Government shall from time to time descend to and be enjoyed by such person or persons, being Protestants, as should have inherited and enjoyed the same, in case the said person or persons, so reconciled, holding communion, professing, or marrying as aforesaid, were naturally dead. After the making of which statute, and the settlement therein contained, your Majesty's good subjects, who were restored to the full and free

possession and enjoyment of their religion, rights, and liberties, by the providence of God giving success to your Majesty's just undertakings and unwearied endeavours for that purpose, had no greater temporal felicity to hope or wish for, than to see a royal progeny descending from your Majesty, to whom (under God) they owe their tranquillity, and whose ancestors have for many years been principal assertors of the reformed religion and the liberties of Europe, and from our said most Gracious Sovereign Lady, whose memory will always be precious to the subjects of these realms: And it having since pleased Almighty God to take away our said Sovereign Lady, and also the most hopeful Prince William Duke of Gloucester (the only surviving issue of her Royal Highness the Princess Anne of Denmark) to the unspeakable grief and sorrow of your Majesty and your said good subjects, who under such losses being sensibly put in mind, that it standeth wholly in the pleasure of Almighty God to prolong the lives of your Majesty and of her Royal Highness, and to grant to your Majesty, or to her Royal Highness, such issue as may be inheritable to the Crown and regal Government aforesaid, by the respective limitations in the said recited Act contained, do constantly implore the Divine Mercy for those blessings: and your Majesty's said subjects having daily experience of your royal care and concern for the present and future welfare of these kingdoms, and particularly recommending from your Throne a further provision to be made for the succession of the Crown in the Protestant line, for the happiness of the nation, and the security of our religion; and it being absolutely necessary for the safety, peace and quiet of this realm, to obviate all doubts and contentions in the same, by reason of any pretended titles to the Crown, and to maintain a certainty in the succession thereof, to which your subjects may safely have recourse for their protection, in case the limitations in the said recited Act should determine: Therefore for a further provision of the succession of the Crown in the Protestant line, we your Majesty's most dutiful and loyal subjects, the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, do beseech your Majesty that it may be enacted and declared, and be it enacted and declared by the King's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That the most Excellent Princess Sophia, Electress and Duchess Dowager of Hanover, daughter of the most Excellent Princess Elizabeth, late Queen of Bohemia, daughter of our late Sovereign Lord King James I, of happy memory, be and is hereby declared to be the next in succession, in the Protestant line, to the Imperial Crown and dignity of the said realms of Engalnd, France and Ireland, with the dominions and territories thereunto belonging, after his Majesty, and the Princess Anne of Denmark, and in default of issue of the said Princess Anne, and of his Majesty respectively: And that from and after the deceases of his said Majesty, our now Sovereign Lord, and of her Royal Highness the Princess Anne of Denmark,

and for default of issue of the said Princess Anne, and of his Majesty respectively, the Crown and regal Government of the said kingdoms of England, France and Ireland, and of the dominions thereunto belonging, with the royal state and dignity of the said realms, and all honours, stiles, titles, regalities, prerogatives, powers, jurisdictions and authorities, to the same belonging and appertaining, shall be, remain, and continue to the said most Excellent Princess Sophia, and the heirs of her body, being Protestants: And thereunto the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, shall and will, in the name of all the people of this realm, most humbly and faithfully submit themselves, their heirs and posterities; and do faithfully promise that after the deceases of his Majesty, and her Royal Highness, and the failure of the heirs of their respective bodies, to stand to, maintain, and defend the said Princess Sophia, and the heirs of her body, being Protestants, according to the limitation and succession of the Crown in this Act specified and contained, to the utmost of their powers, with their lives and estates, against all persons whatsoever that shall attempt anything to the contrary.

II. Provided always, and it is hereby enacted, That all and every person and persons, who shall or may take or inherit the said Crown, by virtue of the limitation of this present Act, and is, are or shall be reconciled to, or shall hold communion with, the See or Church of Rome, or shall profess the Popish religion, or shall marry a Papist, shall be subject to such incapacities, as in such case or cases are by the said recited Act provided, enacted, and established; and that every King and Queen of this realm, who shall come to and succeed in the Imperial Crown of this kingdom, by virtue of this Act, shall have the Coronation Oath administered to him, her or them, at their respective Coronations, according to the Act of Parliament made in the first year of the reign of his Majesty, and the said late Queen Mary, intituled, 'An Act for establishing the Coronation Oath,' and shall make, subscribe, and repeat the Declaration in the Act first above recited mentioned or referred to, in the manner and form thereby prescribed.

III. And whereas it is requisite and necessary that some further provision be made for securing our religion, laws and liberties, from and after the death of his Majesty and the Princess Anne of Denmark, and in default of issue of the body of the said Princess, and of his Majesty respectively: Be it enacted by the King's most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same,

That whosoever shall hereafter come to the possession of this Crown, shall join in communion with the Church of England, as by law established.

That in case the Crown and imperial dignity of this realm shall hereafter come to any person, not being a native of this kingdom of England, this nation be not obliged to engage in any war for the defence of any dominions or territories which do not belong to the Crown of England, without the consent of Parliament.

That no person who shall hereafter come to the possession of this Crown, shall go out of the dominions of England, Scotland, or Ireland, without consent of Parliament.

That from and after the time that the further limitation by this Act shall take effect, all matters and things relating to the well governing of this kingdom, which are properly cognizable in the Privy Council by the laws and customs of this realm, shall be transacted there, and all resolutions taken thereupon shall be signed by such of the Privy Council as shall advise and consent to the same.

That after the said limitation shall take effect as aforesaid, no person born out of the kingdoms of England, Scotland, or Ireland, or the dominions thereunto belonging (although he be naturalised or made a denizen, except such as are born of English parents), shall be capable to be of the Privy Council, or a Member of either House of Parliament, or to enjoy any office or place of trust, either civil or military, or to have any grant of lands, tenements or hereditaments from the Crown, to himself or to any other or others in trust for him.

That no person who has an office or place of profit under the King, or receives a pension from the Crown, shall be capable of serving as a Member of the House of Commons.

That after the said limitation shall take effect as aforesaid, Judges' Commissions be made *Quamdiu se bene gesserint*, and their salaries ascertained and established; but upon the Address of both Houses of Parliament it may be lawful to remove them.

That no pardon under the Great Seal of England be pleadable to an impeachment by the Commons in Parliament.

IV. And whereas the Laws of England are the birthright of the people thereof, and all the Kings and Queens, who shall ascend the Throne of this realm, ought to administer the Government of the same according to the said laws, and all their officers and ministers ought to serve them respectively according to the same: The said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, do therefore further humbly pray, That all the Laws and Statutes of this realm for securing the established religion, and the rights and liberties of the people thereof, and all other Laws and Statutes of the same now in force, may be ratified and confirmed, and the same are by his Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, and by authority of the same, ratified and confirmed accordingly.

And I cannot but look upon it as a peculiar happiness, that in my reign so full a provision is made for the peace and quiet of my people, and for the security of our religion, by so firm an establishment of the Protestant succession throughout Great Britain.

Gentlemen of the House of Commons,

I take this occasion to remind you to make effectual provision for the payment of the equivalent to Scotland within the time appointed by this Act, and

I am persuaded you will show as much readiness in this particular as you have done in all the other parts of this great work.

My Lords and Gentlemen,

The season of the year being now pretty far advanced, I hope you will continue the same zeal which has appeared throughout this session, in despatching what yet remains unfinished of the public business before you.

UNION BETWEEN ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

(1707.)

An Act for an Union of the two Kingdoms of England and Scotland.

(PREAMBLE.)

ARTICLE I.

THAT the two kingdoms of England and Scotland shall upon the first day of May, which shall be in the year one thousand seven hundred and seven, and for ever after, be united into one kingdom by the name of Great Britain; and that the ensigns' armorial of the said united kingdom be such as her Majesty shall appoint, and the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew be conjoined in such manner as her Majesty sha'l think fit, and used in all flags, banners, standards, and ensigns, both at sea and land.

ARTICLE II.

That the succession of the monarchy of the united kingdom of Great Britain, and of the dominions thereto belonging, after her most sacred Majesty, and in default of issue of her Majesty, be, remain, and continue to the most excellent Princess Sophia, electoress and duchess dowager of Hanover, and the heirs of her body being Protestants, upon whom the Crown of England is settled by an Act of Parliament made in England in the twelfth year of the reign of his late Majesty King William the Third, entitled, *An Act for the further Limitation of the Crown, and better securing the Rights and Liberties of the Subject:* And that all Papists, and persons marrying Papists, shall be excluded from, and for ever incapable to inherit, possess, or enjoy the Imperial Crown of Great Britain, and the dominions thereunto belonging, or any part thereof: and in every such case, the Crown and government shall from time to time descend to, and be enjoyed by such person, being a Protestant, as should have inherited and enjoyed the same, in case such Papist, or person marrying a Papist, was naturally dead,

according to the provision for the descent of the Crown of England, made by another Act of Parliament in England in the first year of the reign of their late Majesties King William and Queen Mary, entitled, *An Act declaring the Rights and Liberties of the Subject, and settling the Succession of the Crown.*

ARTICLE III.

That the united kingdom of Great Britain be represented by one and the same Parliament, to be styled, The Parliament of Great Britain.

ARTICLE IV.

That all the subjects of the united kingdom of Great Britain shall, from and after the Union, have full freedom and intercourse of trade and navigation to and from any port or place within the said united kingdom, and the dominions and plantations thereunto belonging; and that there be a communication of all other rights, privileges, and advantages, which do or may belong to the subjects of either kingdom; except where it is otherwise expressly agreed in these articles.

ARTICLE V.

(Scotch ships to be registered as British ships.)

ARTICLE VI.

(Concerning Trade, Scots Cattle, and Importation of Victuals.)

ARTICLE VII.

(Concerning Excises.)

ARTICLE VIII.

(Concerning Foreign Salt, Scotch Salt, Flesh Exported from Scotland, Curing of Herrings, Fish Exported, etc.)

ARTICLE IX.

(Concerning Land Tax and Quota of Scotland.)

ARTICLE X.

(Concerning Stamped Vellum.)

ARTICLE XI.

(Concerning the Window Tax.)

ARTICLE XII.

(Concerning Coals, Culm, and Cinders.)

ARTICLE XIII.

(Concerning Malt.)

ARTICLE XIV.

(Scotland not chargeable with any other duties before the Union, except these consented to.)

ARTICLE XV.

(Concerning Equivalent Money and Uses, Coin of Scotland, African and Indian Company of Scotland, Overplus, Public Debts of Scotland, Manufacture of Coarse Wool, Fisheries, and the Appointment of Commissioners for the Equivalent.)

ARTICLE XVI.

That from and after the Union, the coin shall be of the same standard and value throughout the united kingdom, as now in England, and a mint shall be continued in Scotland, under the same rules as the mint in England, and the present officers of the mint continued, subject to such regulations and alterations as her Majesty, her heirs or successors, or the Parliament of Great Britain shall think fit.

ARTICLE XVII.

That from and after the Union, the same weights and measures shall be used throughout the united kingdom, as are now established in England, and standards of weights and measures shall be kept by those burghs in Scotland, to whom the keeping the standards of weights and measures, now in use there, does of special right belong: All which standards shall be sent down to such respective burghs, from the standards kept in the Exchequer at Westminster, subject nevertheless to such regulations as the Parliament of Great Britain shall think fit.

ARTICLE XVIII.

That the laws concerning regulation of trade, customs, and such excises to which Scotland is, by virtue of this treaty, to be liable, be the same in Scotland, from and after the Union, as in England; and that all other laws in use within the kingdom of Scotland, do after the Union, and notwithstanding thereof, remain in the same force as before (except such as are contrary to, or inconsistent with this treaty), but alterable by the Parliament of Great Britain; with this difference betwixt the laws concerning public right, policy, and civil government, and those which concern private right, that the laws which concern public right, policy, and civil government, may be made the same throughout the whole united kingdom; but that no alteration be made in laws which concern private right, except for evident utility of the subjects within Scotland.

Article XIX.

(Concerning Courts and the Privy Council.)

Article XX.

(Concerning Heritable Offices.)

Article XXI.

(Concerning Royal Burghs.)

Article XXII.

That, by virtue of this treaty, of the peers of Scotland, at the time of the Union, sixteen shall be the number to sit and vote in the House of Lords, and forty-five the number of representatives of Scotland in the House of Commons of the Parliament of Great Britain; and that when her Majesty, her heirs or successors, shall declare her or their pleasure for holding the first or any other subsequent Parliament of Great Britain, until the Parliament of Great Britain shall make further provision therein, a writ do issue under the great seal of the united kingdom, directed to the privy council of Scotland, commanding them to cause sixteen peers, who are to sit in the House of Lords, to be summoned to Parliament, and forty-five members to be elected to sit in the House of Commons of the Parliament of Great Britain, according to the agreement of this treaty, in such manner as by an Act of this present session of the Parliament of Scotland is or shall be settled; which Act is hereby declared to be as valid as if it were a part of and engrossed in this treaty. And that the names of the persons so summoned and elected shall be returned by the privy council of Scotland into the court from whence the said writ did issue . . . And that every one of the lords of Parliament of Great Britain, and every member of the House of Commons of the Parliament of Great Britain, in the first and all succeeding Parliaments of Great Britain, until the Parliament of Great Britain shall otherwise direct, shall take the respective oaths appointed to be taken instead of the oaths of allegiance and supremacy . . . And it is declared and agreed, That these words, *This Realm*, *The Crown of this Realm*, and *The Queen of this Realm*, mentioned in the oaths and declaration contained in the aforesaid Acts, which were intended to signify the crown and realm of England, shall be understood of the crown and realm of Great Britain; and that in that sense the said oaths and declaration be taken and subscribed by the members of both Houses of the Parliament of Great Britain.

Article XXIII.

That the aforesaid sixteen peers of Scotland mentioned in the last preceding article, to sit in the House of Lords of the Parliament of Great Britain, shall have all privileges of Parliament, which the peers of England now have, and

which they, or any peers of Great Britain shall have after the Union, and particularly the right of sitting upon the trial of peers: And in case of the trial of any peer, in time of adjournment, or prorogation of Parliament, the said sixteen peers shall be summoned in the same manner, and have the same powers and privileges at such trial, as any other peers of Great Britain. And that in case any trials of peers shall hereafter happen, when there is no Parliament in being, the sixteen peers of Scotland who sat in the last preceding Parliament, shall be summoned in the same manner, and have the same powers and privileges at such trials, as any other peers of Great Britain; and that all peers of Scotland, and their successors to their honours and dignities, shall from and after the Union, be peers of Great Britain, and have rank and precedency next and immediately after the peers of the like orders and degrees in England at the time of the Union, and before all peers of Great Britain of the like orders and degrees, who may be created after the Union, and shall be tried as peers of Great Britain, and shall enjoy all privileges of peers, as fully as the peers of England do now, or as they, or any other peers of Great Britain may hereafter enjoy the same, except the right and privilege of sitting in the House of Lords, and the privileges depending thereon, and particularly the right of sitting upon the trials of peers.

ARTICLE XXIV.

That from and after the Union, there be one great seal for the united kingdom of Great Britain, which shall be different from the great seal now used in either kingdom: And that the quartering the arms, and the rank and precedency of the lyon king of arms of the kingdom of Scotland, as may best suit the Union, be left to her Majesty: And that in the mean time, the great seal of England be used as the great seal of the united kingdom, and that the great seal of the united kingdom be used for sealing writs to elect and summon the Parliament of Great Britain, and for sealing all treaties with foreign princes and states, and all public acts, instruments and orders of state, which concern the whole united kingdom, and in all other matters relating to England, as the great seal of England is now used: And that a seal in Scotland after the Union be always kept and made use of in all things relating to private rights or grants, which have usually passed the great seal of Scotland, and which only concern offices, grants, commissions, and private rights within that kingdom; and that until such seal be appointed by her Majesty, the present great seal of Scotland shall be used for such purposes: And that the privy seal, signet, casset, signet of the judiciary court, quarter seal, and seals of court now used in Scotland be continued; but that the said seals be altered and adapted to the state of the Union, as her Majesty shall think fit; and the said seals, and all of them, and the keepers of them, shall be subject to such regulations as the Parliament of Great Britain shall hereafter make. And that the crown, sceptre, and sword of state, the records of Parliament, and all other records, rolls and registers whatsoever, both public and private, general and particular, and warrants thereof,

continue to be kept as they are within that part of the united kingdom now called Scotland; and that they shall so remain in all time coming, notwithstanding the Union.

ARTICLE XXV.

That all laws and statutes in either kingdom, so far as they are contrary to, or inconsistent with the terms of these articles, or any of them, shall, from and after the Union, cease and become void, and shall be so declared to be, by the respective Parliaments of the kingdom.

As by the said articles of Union, ratified and approved by the said Act of Parliament of Scotland, relation being thereunto had, may appear. And the tenor of the aforesaid Act for securing the Protestant religion and Presbyterian church government within the kingdom of Scotland, is as follows:

II. Our sovereign lady, and the estates of Parliament, considering that by the late Act of Parliament, for a treaty with England for an Union of both kingdoms, it is provided, That the commissioners for that treaty shall not treat of or concerning any alteration of the worship, discipline, and government of the church of this kingdom as now by law established: Which treaty being now reported to the Parliament, and it being reasonable and necessary that the true Protestant religion, as presently professed within this kingdom, with the worship, discipline, and government of this church, should be effectually and unalterably secured: Therefore her Majesty, with advice and consent of the said estates of Parliament, doth hereby establish and confirm the said true Protestant religion, and the worship, discipline, and government of this church, to continue without any alteration to the people of this land in all succeeding generations; and more especially her Majesty, with advice and consent aforesaid, ratifies, approves, and for ever confirms the fifth Act of the first Parliament of King William and Queen Mary, entitled, *Act ratifying the Confession of Faith, and settling Presbyterian Church Government;* with all other Acts of Parliament relating thereto, in prosecution of the declaration of the estates of this kingdom, containing the claim of right, bearing date the eleventh of April, one thousand six hundred and eighty-nine: And her Majesty, with advice and consent aforesaid, expressly provides and declares, That the foresaid true Protestant religion, contained in the above-mentioned confession of faith, with the form and purity of worship presently in use within this church, and its Presbyterian church government and discipline (that is to say) the government of the church by kirk sessions, presbyteries, provincial synods, and general assemblies, all established by the foresaid Acts of Parliament, pursuant to the claim of right, shall remain and continue unalterable, and that the said Presbyterian government shall be the only government of the church within the kingdom of Scotland.

III. (Providing for the continuance of Universities and Colleges in Scotland.)

IV. (Scotch subjects not to be liable to any oath inconsistent with said Church Government; Queen's successors to maintain said government.)

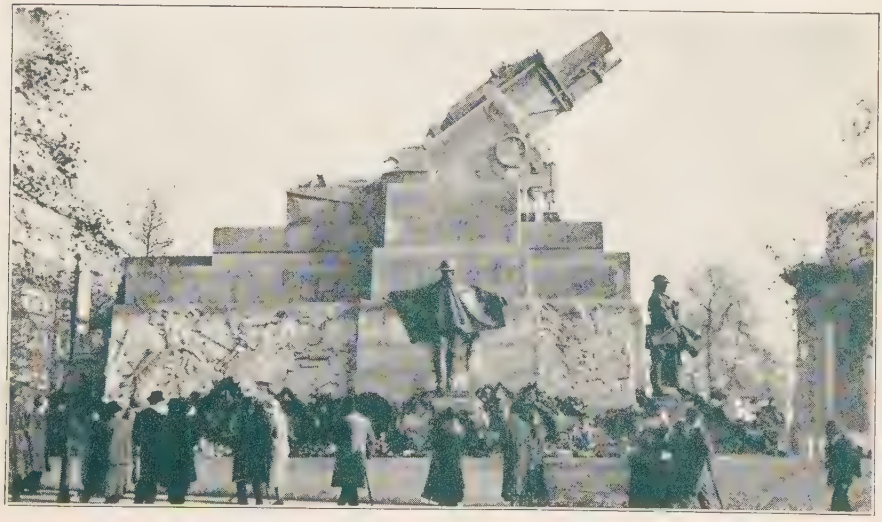
V. And it is hereby statute and ordained, That this Act of Parliament, with the establishment therein contained, shall be held and observed in all time coming, as a fundamental and essential condition of any treaty or Union to be concluded betwixt the two kingdoms, without any alteration thereof, or derogation thereto in any sort for ever: As also, That this Act of Parliament, and settlement therein contained, shall be insert and repeated in any Act of Parliament that shall pass for agreeing and concluding the foresaid treaty or Union betwixt the two kingdoms; and that the same shall be therein expressly declared to be a fundamental and essential condition of the said treaty or Union in all time coming: Which articles of Union, and Act immediately above-written, her Majesty, with advice and consent aforesaid, statutes, enacts, and ordains to be and continue, in all time coming, the sure and perpetual foundation of a complete and entire Union of the two kingdoms of Scotland and England, under the express condition and provision, that this approbation and ratification of the foresaid articles and Act shall be no ways binding on this kingdom, until the said articles and Act be ratified, approved, and confirmed by her Majesty, with and by the authority of the Parliament of England, as they are now agreed to, approved, and confirmed by her Majesty, with and by the authority of the Parliament of Scotland; declaring nevertheless, that the Parliament of England may provide for the security of the church of England as they think expedient, to take place within the bounds of the said kingdom of England, and not derogating from the security above provided for establishing of the church of Scotland within the bounds of this kingdom; as also the said Parliament of England may extend the additions and other provisions contained in the articles of Union, as above insert in favours of the subjects of Scotland, to and in favours of the subjects of England; which shall not suspend or derogate from the force and effect of this present ratification, but shall be understood as herein included, without the necessity of any new ratification in the Parliament of Scotland.

VI. (Providing that all laws, etc., inconsistent with Articles of Union, shall cease.)

VII. And whereas an Act hath passed in this present session of Parliament, entitled, *An Act for securing the Church of England as by Law established;* the tenor whereof follows:

Whereas by an Act made in the session of Parliament held in the third and fourth year of her Majesty's reign, whereby her Majesty was empowered to appoint commissioners, under the great seal of England, to treat with commissioners to be authorized by the Parliament of Scotland, concerning an Union of the kingdoms of England and Scotland, it is provided and enacted, That the commissioners to be named in pursuance of the said Act should not treat of or concerning any alteration of the liturgy, rites, ceremonies, discipline, or government of the church as by law established within this realm: And whereas certain commissioners appointed by her Majesty in pursuance of the said Act,

HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, LONDON



ARTILLERY MEMORIAL, LONDON

and also other commissioners nominated by her Majesty by the authority of the Parliament of Scotland, have met and agreed upon a treaty of Union of the said kingdoms; which treaty is now under the consideration of this present Parliament; And whereas the said treaty (with some alterations therein made) is ratified and approved by Act of Parliament in Scotland; and the said Act of ratification is by her Majesty's royal command, laid before the Parliament of this kingdom: And whereas it is reasonable and necessary, that the true Protestant religion professed and established by law in the Church of England, and the doctrine, worship, discipline, and government thereof, should be effectually and unalterably secured; be it enacted by the Queen's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and the Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by authority of the same, That an Act made in the thirteenth year of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, of famous memory, entitled, *An Act for the Ministers of the Church to be of sound Religion;* and also another Act made in the thirteenth year of the reign of the late King Charles the Second, entitled, *An Act for the Uniformity of the Public Prayers and Administration of Sacraments, and other Rites and Ceremonies, and for establishing the form of making, ordaining, and consecrating Bishops, Priests and Deacons in the Church of England,* (other than such clauses in the said Acts, or either of them, as have been repealed or altered by any subsequent Act or Acts of Parliament,) and all and singular other Acts of Parliament now in force for the establishment and preservation of the Church of England, and the doctrine, worship, discipline, and government thereof, shall remain and be in full force for ever.

VIII. (Providing that the Queen's successors are to take an oath to maintain the settlement of the Church of England.)

IX. (Providing that this Act is to be an essential part of any treaty between the kingdoms.)

X. (Providing that the Articles of Union, and the Act for the establishment of the Presbyterian Church Government, be ratified and confirmed.)

XI. (Declaring the Acts for settling the Church Governments in both kingdoms essential parts of the Union.)

XII. And whereas since the passing the said Act in the Parliament of Scotland, for ratifying the said articles of Union, one other Act, entitled, *An Act settling the Manner of electing the Sixteen Peers, and Forty-five Members, to represent Scotland in the Parliament of Great Britain,* hath likewise passed in the said Parliament of Scotland at Edinburgh, the fifth day of February, one thousand seven hundred and seven, the tenor whereof follows:

Our sovereign lady considering, That by the twenty-second articles of the treaty of Union, as the same is ratified by an Act passed in this session of Parliament, upon the sixteenth of January last, it is provided, That by virtue of the said treaty, of the Peers of Scotland, at the time of the Union, sixteen shall be of the number to sit and vote in the House of Lords, and forty-five the

number of the representatives of Scotland in the House of Commons of the Parliament of Great Britain; and that the said sixteen peers, and forty-five members in the House of Commons, be named and chosen in such manner as by a subsequent Act in this present session of the Parliament in Scotland, should be settled; which Act is thereby declared to be as valid, as if it were a part of, and engrossed in the said treaty: Therefore her Majesty, with the advice and consent of the estates of Parliament, statutes, enacts and ordains, That the said sixteen peers, who shall have right to sit in the House of Peers in the Parliament of Great Britain, on the part of Scotland, by virtue of this treaty, shall be named by the said peers of Scotland, whom they represent, their heirs or successors to their dignities and honours, out of their own number, and that by open election and plurality of voices of the peers present, and of the proxies for such as shall be absent, the said proxies being peers, and producing a mandate in writing duly signed before witnesses, and both the constituent and proxy being qualified according to law; declaring also, That such peers as are absent, being qualified as aforesaid, may send to all such meetings lists of the peers whom they judge fittest, validly signed by the said absent peers, which shall be reckoned in the same manner as if the parties had been present, and given in the said list; and in case of the death, or legal incapacity of any of the sixteen peers, that the aforesaid peers of Scotland shall nominate another of their own number, in place of the said peer or peers, in manner before and after-mentioned: And that of the said forty-five representatives of Scotland in the House of Commons in the Parliament of Great Britain, thirty shall be chosen by the Shires or Steuartries, and fifteen by the royal borrows, as follows: (The remainder of the Article provides for the methods of election, legal capacities, oaths to be administered to, etc., of those elected to the House of Commons.)

XIII. As by the said Act passed in Scotland, for settling the manner of electing the sixteen peers, and forty-five members, to represent Scotland in the Parliament of Great Britain, may appear; Be it therefore further enacted and declared by the authority aforesaid, That the said last-mentioned Act passed in Scotland for settling the manner of electing the sixteen peers, and forty-five members, to represent Scotland in the Parliament of Great Britain, as aforesaid, shall be, and the same is hereby declared to be as valid as if the same had been part of, and engrossed in the said articles of Union ratified and approved by the said Act of Parliament of Scotland, and by this Act, as aforesaid.

UNION BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

(July 2, 1800.)

An Act for the Union of Great Britain and Ireland.

(PREAMBLE.)

Article I.

That it be the first article of the Union of the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, that the said kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland shall, upon the first day of January which shall be in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and one, and for ever after, be united into one kingdom, by the name of *the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland;* and that the royal style and titles appertaining to the imperial crown of the said united kingdom and its dependencies; and also the ensigns, armorial flags, and banners thereof, shall be such as his Majesty, by his royal proclamation under the great seal of the united kingdom, shall be pleased to appoint.

Article II.

That it be the second article of Union, that the succession to the imperial crown of the said united kingdom, and of the dominions thereunto belonging, shall continue limited and settled in the same manner as the succession to the imperial crown of the said kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland now stands limited and settled, according to the existing laws, and to the terms of Union between England and Scotland.

Article III.

That it be the third article of Union, that the said united kingdom be represented in one and the same Parliament, to be styled The Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

Article IV.

That it be the fourth article of Union, that four Lords Spiritual of Ireland by rotations of sessions, and twenty-eight Lords Temporal of Ireland elected for life by the peers of Ireland, shall be the numbr to sit and vote on the part of Ireland in the House of Lords of the Parliament of the united kingdom; and one hundred commoners (two for each county of Ireland, two for the city of Dublin, two for the city of Cork, one for the university of Trinity College, and one for each of the thirty-one most considerable cities, towns, and boroughs) be the number to sit and vote on the part of Ireland in the House of Commons of the Parliament of the united kingdom:

That such Act as shall be passed in the Parliament of Ireland previous to the Union, to regulate the mode by which the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, to serve in the Parliament of the united kingdom on the part of Ireland, shall be summoned and returned to the said Parliament shall be considered as forming part of the treaty of Union and shall be incorporated in the Act of the respective Parliaments by which the said Union shall be ratified and established:

That all questions touching the rotation or election of Lords Spiritual or Temporal of Ireland to sit in the Parliament of the united kingdom, shall be decided by the House of Lords thereof; and whenever, by reason of an equality of votes in the election of any such Lords Temporal, a complete election shall not be made according to the true intent of this article, the names of those peers for whom such equality of votes shall be so given, shall be written on pieces of paper of a similar form, and shall be put into a glass, by the Clerk of the Parliaments at the table of the House of Lords whilst the House is sitting; and the peer or peers whose name or names shall be first drawn out by the Clerk of the Parliaments, shall be deemed the peer or peers elected, as the case may be:

That any person holding any peerage of Ireland now subsisting, or hereafter to be created, shall not thereby be disqualified from being elected to serve, if he shall so think fit, or from serving or continuing to serve, if he shall so think fit, for any county, city, or borough of Great Britain, in the House of Commons of the united kingdom, unless he shall have been previously elected as above, to sit in the House of Lords of the united kingdom; but that so long as such peer of Ireland shall so continue to be a member of the House of Commons, he shall not be entitled to the privilege of peerage, nor be capable of being elected to serve as a peer on the part of Ireland, or of voting at any such election; and that he shall be liable to be sued, indicted, proceeded against, and tried as a commoner, for any offence with which he may be charged:

That it shall be lawful for his Majesty, his heirs and successors, to create peers of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, and to make promotions in the peerage thereof, after the Union; provided that no new creation of any such peers shall take place after the Union until three of the peerages of Ireland, which shall have been existing at the time of the Union, shall have become extinct; and upon such extinction of three peerages, that it shall be lawful for his Majesty, his heirs and successors, to create one peer of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland; and in like manner as often as three peerages of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland shall become extinct, it shall be lawful for his Majesty, his heirs and successors, to create one other peer of the said part of the united kingdom; and if it shall happen that the peers of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland shall, by extinction of peerages or otherwise, be reduced to the number of one hundred, exclusive of all such peers of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, as shall hold any peerage of Great Britain subsisting at the time of the Union, or of the united

kingdom, created since the Union, by which such peers shall be entitled to an hereditary seat in the House of Lords of the united kingdom, then and in that case it shall and may be lawful for his Majesty, his heirs and successors, to create one peer of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, as often as any one of such one hundred peerages shall fail by extinction, or as often as any one peer of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland shall become entitled, by descent or creation, to an hereditary seat in the House of Lords of the united kingdom; it being the true intent and meaning of this article, that at all times after the Union, it shall and may be lawful for his Majesty, his heirs and successors, to keep up the peerage of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland to the number of one hundred, over and above the number of such of the said peers as shall be entitled, by descent or creation, to an hereditary seat in the House of Lords of the united kingdom:

That if any peerage shall at any time be in abeyance, such peerage shall be deemed and taken as an existing peerage; and no peerage shall be deemed extinct, unless on default of claimants to the inheritance of such peerage for the space of one year from the death of the person who shall have been last possessed thereof; and if no claim shall be made to the inheritance of such peerage, in such form and manner as may from time to time be prescribed by the House of Lords of the united kingdom, before the expiration of the said period of a year, then and in that case such peerage shall be deemed extinct; provided that nothing herein shall exclude any person from afterwards putting in a claim to the peerage so deemed extinct; and if such claim shall be allowed as valid, by judgment of the House of Lords of the united kingdom, reported to his Majesty, such peerage shall be considered as revived; and in case any new creation of a peerage of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland, shall have taken place in the interval, in consequence of the supposed extinction of such peerage, then no new right of creation shall accrue to his Majesty, his heirs or successors, in consequence of the next extinction which shall take place of any peerage of that part of the united kingdom called Ireland:

That all questions touching the election of members to sit on the part of Ireland in the House of Commons of the united kingdom shall be heard and decided in the same manner as questions touching such elections in Great Britain now are, or at any time hereafter shall by law be heard and decided; subject nevertheless to such particular regulations in respect of Ireland as, from local circumstances, the Paliament of the united kingdom may from time to time deem expedient.

That the qualifications in respect of property of the members elected on the part of Ireland to sit in the House of Commons of the united kingdom, shall be respectively the same as are now provided by law in the cases of elections for counties and cities and boroughs respectively in that part of Great Britain called England, unless any other provision shall hereafter be made in that respect by Act of Parliament of the united kingdom.

That when his Majesty, his heirs or successors, shall declare his, her, or their pleasure for holding the first or any subsequent Parliament of the united kingdom, a proclamation shall issue, under the great seal of the united kingdom, to cause the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, who are to serve in the Parliament thereof on the part of Ireland, to be returned in such manner as by any Act of this present session of Parliament of Ireland shall be provided; and that the Lords Spiritual and Temporal and Commons of Great Britain shall, together with the Lords Spiritual and Temporal and Commons so returned as aforesaid on the part of Ireland, constitute the two Houses of Parliament of the united kingdom:

(The next clause provides for a temporary personnel of the first Parliament after the Union.)

That the Lords of Parliament on the part of Ireland, in the House of Lords of the united kingdom, shall at all times have the same privileges of Parliament which shall belong to the Lords of Parliament on the part of Great Britain; and the Lords Spiritual and Temporal respectively on the part of Ireland shall at all times have the same rights in respect of their sitting and voting upon the trial of peers, as the Lords Spiritual and Temporal respectively on the part of Great Britain; and that all Lords Spiritual of Ireland shall have rank and precedency next and immediately after the Lords Spiritual of the same rank and degree of Great Britain, and shall enjoy all privileges as fully as the Lord's Spiritual of Great Britain do now or may hereafter enjoy the same (the right and privilege of sitting in the House of Lords, and the privileges depending thereon, and particularly the right of sitting on the trial of peers, excepted); and that the persons holding any temporal peerages of Ireland, existing at the time of the Union, shall, from and after the Union, have rank and precedency next and immediately after all the persons holding peerages of the like orders and degree in Great Britain, subsisting at the time of the Union; and that all peerages of Ireland created after the Union shall have rank and precedency with the peerages of the united kingdom, so created, according to the dates of their creations; and that all peerages both of Great Britain and Ireland, now subsisting or hereafter to be created, shall in all other respects, from the date of the Union, be considered as peerages of the united kingdom; and that the peers of Ireland shall, as peers of the united kingdom, be sued and tried as peers, except as aforesaid, and shall enjoy all privileges of peers as fully as the peers of Great Britain; the right and privilege of sitting in the House of Lords, and the privileges depending thereon, and the right of sitting on the trial of peers, only excepted:

Article V.

That it be the fifth article of Union, That the churches of England and Ireland, as now by law established, be united into one Protestant Episcopal Church, to be called The United Church of England and Ireland; and that the

doctrine, worship, discipline, and government of the said united church shall be, and shall remain in full force for ever, as the same are now by law established for the church of England; and that the continuance and preservation of the said united church, as the established church of England and Ireland, shall be deemed and taken to be an essential and fundamental part of the Union; and that in like manner the doctrine, worship, discipline, and government of the church of Scotland, shall remain and be preserved as the same are now established by law, and by the Acts for the Union of the two kingdoms of England and Scotland.

ARTICLE VI.

That it be the sixth article of Union, That his Majesty's subjects of Great Britain and Ireland shall, from and after the first day of January one thousand eight hundred and one, be entitled to the same privileges, and be on the same footing, as to encouragements and bounties on the like articles being the growth, produce, or manufacture, of either country respectively, and generally in respect of trade and navigation in all ports and places in the united kingdom and its dependencies; and that in all treaties made by his Majesty, his heirs and successors, with any foreign power, his Majesty's subjects of Ireland shall have the same privileges, and be on the same footing, as his Majesty's subjects of Great Britain:

(The remaining clauses of this article deal with the duties upon articles respectively imported and exported between the kingdoms, two schedules being given.)

ARTICLE VII.

(Provides that the interest and sinking fund for the reduction of the debt of either kingdom shall continue to be separately defrayed. Also provides for the expenditures of the united kingdom.)

ARTICLE VIII.

(Provides that existing laws and courts of jurisdiction within the respective kingdoms may be altered at pleasure of the united Parliament. Also provides for appeal.)

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

(PREAMBLE.)

Objects.—WE, the People of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to

ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT.

SECTION I.

Legislative powers.—All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION II.

House of Representatives.—1st Clause.—The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

Qualifications of Representatives.—2d Clause.—No person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Apportionment of Representatives.—3d Clause.—Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

Vacancies, how filled.—4th Clause.—When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

Speaker, how appointed.—5th Clause.—The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION III.

United States Senate.—1st Clause.—The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote.

Classification of Senators.—2d Clause.—Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the Senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

Qualification of Senators.—3d Clause.—No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

President of the Senate.—4th Clause.—The Vice-President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

Other officers of the Senate.—5th Clause.—The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president pro tempore, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

The Senate a court for trial of impeachments.—6th Clause.—The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Judgment in case of conviction.—7th Clause.—Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment, according to law.

SECTION IV.

Elections of Senators and Representatives.—1st Clause.—The times, places and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators.

Meeting of Congress.—2d Clause.—The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION V.

Organization of Congress.—1st Clause.—Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of

each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties as each house may provide.

Rules of proceeding.—2d Clause.—Each house may determine the rules of its own proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Journal of Congress.—3d Clause.—Each house shall keep a Journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same; excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy, and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Adjournment of Congress.—4th Clause.—Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SECTION VI.

Compensation and privileges of members.—1st Clause.—The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

Plurality of offices prohibited.—2d Clause.—No Senator or Representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States, shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SECTION VII.

Bills, how originated.—1st Clause.—All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

How bills become laws.—2d Clause.—Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States. If he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and, if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But, in all such cases, the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays; and the names of the persons

voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Approval and veto powers of the President.—3d Clause.—Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and, before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or, being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION VIII.

Powers vested in Congress.—1st Clause.—The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

2d Clause.—To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

3d Clause.—To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

4th Clause.—To establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

5th Clause.—To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

6th Clause.—To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

7th Clause.—To establish post-offices and post-roads;

8th Clause.—To promote the progress of science and the useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

9th Clause.—To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

10th Clause.—To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations;

11th Clause.—To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

12th Clause.—To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

13th Clause.—To provide and maintain a navy;

14th Clause.—To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

15th Clause.—To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions;

16th Clause.—To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

17th Clause.—To exercise exclusive legislation, in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular State, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the Government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings;—And

18th Clause.—To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION IX.

Immigrants, how admitted.—1st Clause.—The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

Habeas Corpus.—2d Clause.—The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless, when in cases of rebellion or invasion, the public safety may require it.

Attainder.—3d Clause.—No bill of attainder or ex post facto law shall be passed.

Direct taxes.—4th Clause.—No capitation, or other direct, tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

Export duties.—5th Clause.—No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

Regulations regarding duties.—6th Clause.—No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

Money, how drawn.—7th Clause.—No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

Titles of nobility prohibited.—8th Clause.—No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present,

emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SECTION X.

Powers of States defined.—1st Clause.—No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

2d Clause.—No state shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any impost or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

3d Clause.—No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any duty on tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT.

SECTION I.

Executive power, in whom vested.—1st Clause.—The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

Presidential Electors.—2d Clause.—Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of Electors, equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no Senator or Representative, or person holding any office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

President and Vice-President, how elected.—[*3d Clause.*—The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, one of whom at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and, if there

be more than one who have such majority and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose, by ballot, one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then, from the five highest on the list, the said house shall, in like manner, choose the President. But, in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the Electors shall be the Vice-President. But, if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them, by ballot, the Vice-President.]*

Time of choosing Electors.—4th Clause.—The Congress may determine the time of choosing the Electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

Qualifications of the President.—5th Clause.—No person except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years resident within the United States.

Resort in case of disability.—6th Clause.—In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

Salary of the President.—7th Clause.—The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive, within that period, any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Oath of office.—8th Clause.—Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation.—"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION II.

Duties of the President.—1st Clause.—The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive

* This clause enclosed within brackets has been annulled, the Twelfth Amendment being substituted in its stead.

departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

His power to make treaties, appoint ambassadors, judges, etc.—2d Clause.—He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may, by law, vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

May fill vacancies.—3d Clause.—The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION III.

His power to convene Congress.—He shall, from time to time, give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and, in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION IV.

How officers may be removed.—The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.

SECTION I.

Judicial power, how vested.—The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior; and shall, at stated times, receive, for their services, a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION II.

To what cases it extends.—1st Clause.—The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority;—to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls;—to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction;—to controversies to which the United States shall be a party;—to controversies between two or more States;—between a State and citizens of another State;—between citizens of different States;—between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States;—and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens or subjects.

Jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.—2d Clause.—In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

Rules respecting trials.—3d Clause.—The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION III.

Treason defined.—1st Clause.—Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

Conviction for treason.—2d Clause.—No person shall be convicted of treason, unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

How punished.—3d Clause.—The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason; but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS.

SECTION I.

Rights of States to public faith defined. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION II.

Privileges of citizens.—1st Clause.—The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all the privileges and immunities of citizens of the several States.

Executive requisition.—2d Clause.—A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice and be found in another State, shall, on the demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

Law regarding fugitive slaves.—3d Clause.—No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up, on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECTION III.

New States, how formed and admitted.—1st Clause.—New States may be admitted, by the Congress, into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned, as well as of the Congress.

Power of Congress over public lands.—2d Clause.—The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION IV.

Republican government guaranteed.—The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government; and shall protect each of them against invasion, and, on application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.

Constitution, how to be amended.—The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid, to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.

Validity of debts recognized.—1st Clause.—All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution as under the Confederation.

Supreme Law of the Land defined.—2d Clause.—This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

Oath, of whom required, and for what.—3d Clause.—The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath, or affirmation, to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

Ratification.—The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President, and Deputy from Virginia.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.
John Langdon,
Nicholas Gilman.

MASSACHUSETTS.
Nathaniel Gorham,
Rufus King.

CONNECTICUT.
William Samuel Johnson,
Roger Sherman.

NEW YORK.
Alexander Hamilton.

NEW JERSEY.
William Livingston,
David Brearley,
William Paterson,
Jonathan Dayton.

PENNSYLVANIA.
Benjamin Franklin,
Thomas Mifflin,
Robert Morris,
Thomas Clymer,
Thomas Fitzsimmons,
Jared Ingersoll,
James Wilson,
Gouverneur Morris.

DELAWARE.
George Read,
Gunning Bedford, Jr.,
John Dickinson,
Richard Bassett,
Jacob Broom.

MARYLAND.

James McHenry,
Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer,
Daniel Carroll.

VIRGINIA.

John Blair,
James Madison, Jr.

NORTH CAROLINA.

William Blount,
Richard Dobbs Spraight,
Hugh Williamson.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

John Rutledge,
Charles C. Pinckney,
Charles Pinckney,
Pierce Butler.

GEORGIA.

William Few,
Abraham Baldwin.

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

AMENDMENTS.

*To the Constitution of the United States, Ratified According to the Provisions of the Fifth Article of the Foregoing Constitution.**

ARTICLE I.

Freedom in religion and speech, and of the press.—Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II.

Militia.—A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III.

Soldiers.—No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV.

Search-warrants.—The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated; and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be siezed.

* The first ten Articles of Amendments were ratified in 1791; the 11th in 1798; the 12th in 1804; the 13th in 1865; the 14th in 1868, and the 15th in 1870.

ARTICLE V.

Capital crimes.—No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia when in actual service in time of war and public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor to be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI.

Trial by jury.—In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII.

Suits at common law.—In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise reëxamined, in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of common law.

ARTICLE VIII.

Bail.—Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX.

Certain rights defined.—The enumeration, in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X.

Rights reserved.—The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI.

Judicial power limited.—The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States, by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ARTICLE XII.

Amendment respecting the election of President and Vice-President.—The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President

and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate;—the President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted;—the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and, if no person have such majority, then, from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and, if no person have a majority, then, from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President, shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII.

SECTION I.

Slavery prohibited.—Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SECTION II.

Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV.

SECTION I.

Citizens and their rights.—All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States,

and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SECTION II.

Adjustment of representation to the elective franchise.—Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of Electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive or judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

SECTION III.

Disabling conditions.—No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or Elector of President and Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress, by a vote of two-thirds of each house, may remove such disability.

SECTION IV.

Treatment of public debts.—The validity of the public debt of the United States, including debts incurred for the payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States, nor any State, shall assume, or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims, shall be held illegal and void.

SECTION V.

Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV.

SECTION I.

Right to vote secured.—The right of the citizens of the United States to vote

shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SECTION II.

The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XVI.

Income tax.—The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes, from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

ARTICLE XVII.

Election of Senators.—The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislatures.

When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: Provided, That the legislature of any State may empower the executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the legislature may direct.

This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

ARTICLE XVIII.

SECTION I.

Prohibition.—After one year from the ratification of this article the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the importation thereof into, or the exportation thereof from the United States and all territory subject to the jurisdiction thereof for beverage purposes is hereby prohibited.

SECTION II.

The Congress and the several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

SECTION III.

This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the legislatures of the several States, as provided in the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress.

ARTICLE XIX.

SECTION I.

Equal suffrage.—The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.

SECTION II.

Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

IN CONGRESS, July 4, 1776.

The Unanimous Declaration of the Thirteen United States of America.

1. When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature, and of nature's God, entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

2. We hold these truths to be self-evident—that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundations on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

3. He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

4. He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing im-

portance, unless suspended in their operations till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

5. He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the Legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

6. He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the repository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

7. He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

8. He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected, whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasions from without, and convulsions within.

9. He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for the naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

10. He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

11. He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

12. He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

13. He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our Legislatures.

14. He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

15. He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitutions, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

16. For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;

17. For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States;

18. For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world;

19. For imposing taxes on us without our consent;

20. For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefit of trial by jury;

21. For transporting us beyond seas, to be tried for pretended offences;

22. For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies;

23. For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments;

24. For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever;

25. He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

26. He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

27. He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries, to complete the work of death, desolation, and tyranny already begun, with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

28. He has constrained our fellow-citizens taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

29. He has excited domestic insurrection among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

30. In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

31. Nor have we been wanting in our attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of a common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them as we hold the rest of mankind—enemies in war—in peace, friends.

32. We, therefore, the Representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent States, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. And for the support of

this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

JOHN HANCOCK

NEW HAMPSHIRE.
Josiah Bartlett,
William Whipple,
Matthew Thornton.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.
Samuel Adams,
John Adams,
Robert Treat Paine,
Elbridge Gerry.

RHODE ISLAND.
Stephen Hopkins,
William Ellery.

CONNECTICUT.
Roger Sherman,
Samuel Huntingdon,
William Williams,
Oliver Wolcott.

NEW YORK.
William Floyd,
Philip Livingston,
Francis Lewis,
Lewis Morris.

NEW JERSEY.
Richard Stockton,
John Witherspoon,
Francis Hopkinson,
John Hart,
Abraham Clark.

PENNSYLVANIA.
Robert Morris,
Benjamin Rush,
Benjamin Franklin,
John Morton,
George Clymer,
James Smith,
George Taylor,
James Wilson,
George Ross.

DELAWARE.
Cæsar Rodney,
George Read,
Thomas M'Kean.

MARYLAND.
Samuel Chase,
William Paca,
Thomas Stone,
Charles Carroll, of Carrollton.

VIRGINIA.
George Wythe,
Richard Henry Lee,
Thomas Jefferson,
Benjamin Harrison,
Thomas Nelson, Jr.,
Francis Lightfoot Lee,
Carter Braxton.

NORTH CAROLINA.
William Hooper,
Joseph Hewes,
John Penn.

SOUTH CAROLINA.
Edward Rutledge,
Thomas Heyward, Jr.,
Thomas Lynch, Jr.,
Arthur Middleton.

GEORGIA.
Button Gwinnett,
Lyman Hall,
George Walton.

THE PROCLAMATION OF EMANCIPATION.

A PROCLAMATION.

Whereas, on the twenty-second day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-two, a proclamation was issued by the President of the United States, containing, among other things, the following, to wit:

"That on the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any State or designated parts of a State, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforward, and forever free; and the executive government of the United States, including the military and naval authority thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of such persons, and will do no act or acts to repress such persons, or any of them, in any efforts they may make for their actual freedom.

"That the Executive will, on the first day of January aforesaid, by proclamation, designate the States and parts of States, if any, in which the people thereof respectively shall then be in rebellion against the United States; and the fact that any State, or the people thereof, shall on that day be in good faith represented in the Congress of the United States, by members chosen thereto at elections wherein a majority of the qualified voters of such State shall have participated, shall, in the absence of strong countervailing testimony, be deemed conclusive evidence that such State, and the people thereof, are not then in rebellion against the United States."

Now, therefore, I, Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, by virtue of the power in me vested as Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States in time of actual armed rebellion against the authority and government of the United States, and as a fit and necessary war measure for suppressing said rebellion, do, on this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and in accordance with my purpose so to do, publicly proclaimed for the full period of one hundred days, from the day first above mentioned, order and designate as the States and parts of States wherein the people thereof respectively are this day in rebellion against the United States, to wit:

Arkansas, Texas, Louisiana (except the parishes of St. Bernard, Plaquemines, Jefferson, St. John, St. Charles, St. James, Ascension, Assumption, Terre Bonne, Lafourche, Ste. Marie, St. Martin, and Orleans, including the city of New Orleans), Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, and Virginia (except the forty-eight counties designated as West Virginia, and also the counties of Berkeley, Accomac, Northampton, Elizabeth City, York, Princess Anne, and Norfolk, including the cities of Norfolk and

Portsmouth), and which excepted parts are for the present left precisely as if this proclamation were not issued.

And by virtue of the power and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States and parts of States, are and henceforward shall be free; and that the executive government of the United States, including the military and naval authorities thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of said persons.

And I hereby enjoin upon the people so declared to be free, to abstain from all violence, unless in necessary self-defence; and I recommend to them that, in all cases when allowed, they labor faithfully for reasonable wages.

And I further declare and make known that such persons, of suitable condition, will be received into the armed service of the United States to garrison forts, positions, stations, and other places, and to man vessels of all sorts in said service.

And upon this act, sincerely believed to be an act of justice, warranted by the Constitution upon military necessity, I invoke the considerate judgment of mankind, and the gracious favor of Almighty God.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my name, and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the City of Washington, this first day of January, in the year of our [L. S.] Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and of the independence of the United States the eighty-seventh.

(Signed) ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

By the President:

WILLIAM H. SEWARD, *Secretary of State.*

WASHINGTON'S FAREWELL ADDRESS.

FAREWELL ADDRESS TO THE PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES.

September 17th, 1796.

FRIENDS AND FELLOW-CITIZENS,—The period for a new election of a citizen, to administer the executive government of the United States, being not far distant, and the time actually arrived, when your thoughts must be employed in designating the person, who is to be clothed with that important trust, it appears to me proper, especially as it may conduce to a more distinct expression of the public voice, that I should now apprize you of the resolution I have formed, to decline being considered among the number of those, out of whom a choice is to be made.

I beg you, at the same time, to do me the justice to be assured, that this

resolution has not been taken without a strict regard to all the considerations appertaining to the relation, which binds a dutiful citizen to his country; and that, in withdrawing the tender of service, which silence in my situation might imply, I am influenced by no diminution of zeal for your future interest; no deficiency of grateful respect for your past kindness; but am supported by a full conviction that the step is compatible with both.

The acceptance of, and continuance hitherto in, the office to which your suffrages have twice called me, have been a uniform sacrifice of inclination to the opinion of duty, and to a deference for what appeared to be your desire. I constantly hoped, that it would have been much earlier in my power, consistently with motives, which I was not at liberty to disregard, to return to that retirement, from which I had been reluctantly drawn. The strength of my inclination to do this, previous to the last election, had even led to the preparation of an address to declare it to you; but mature reflection on the then perplexed and critical posture of our affairs with foreign nations, and the unanimous advice of persons entitled to my confidence, impelled me to abandon the idea.

I rejoice, that the state of your concerns, external as well as internal, no longer renders the pursuit of inclination incompatible with the sentiment of duty, or propriety; and am persuaded, whatever partiality may be retained for my services, that, in the present circumstances of our country, you will not disapprove my determination to retire.

The impressions, with which I first undertook the arduous trust, were explained on the proper occasion. In the discharge of this trust, I will only say, that I have, with good intentions, contributed towards the organization and administration of the government the best exertions of which a very fallible judgment was capable. Not unconscious, in the outset, of the inferiority of my qualifications, experience in my own eyes, perhaps still more in the eyes of others, has strengthened the motives to diffidence of myself; and every day the increasing weight of years admonishes me more and more, that the shade of retirement is as necessary to me as it will be welcome. Satisfied, that, if any circumstances have given peculiar value to my services, they were temporary, I have the consolation to believe, that, while choice and prudence invite me to quit the political scene, patriotism does not forbid it.

In looking forward to the moment, which is intended to terminate the career of my pub'ic life, my feelings do not permit me to suspend the deep acknowledgment of that debt of gratitude, which I owe to my beloved country for the many honors it has conferred upon me; still more for the steadfast confidence with which it has supported me; and for the opportunities I have thence enjoyed of manifesting my inviolable attachment, by services faithful and persevering, though in usefulness unequal to my zeal. If benefits have resulted to our country from these services, let it always be remembered to your praise, and as an instructive example in our annals, that, under circumstances in which the passions, agitated in every direction, were liable to mislead, amidst appearances

sometimes dubious, vicissitudes of fortune often discouraging, in situations in which not unfrequently want of success has countenanced the spirit of criticism, the constancy of your support was the essential prop of the efforts, and a guarantee of the plans by which they were effected. Profoundly penetrated with this idea, I shall carry it with me to my grave, as a strong incitement to unceasing vows that Heaven may continue to you the choicest tokens of its beneficence; that your union and brotherly affection may be perpetual; that the free Constitution, which is the work of your hands, may be sacredly maintained; that its administration in every department may be stamped with wisdom and virtue; that, in fine, the happiness of the people of these States, under the auspices of liberty, may be made complete, by so careful a preservation and so prudent a use of this blessing, as will acquire to them the glory of recommending it to the applause, the affection, and adoption of every nation, which is yet a stranger to it.

Here, perhaps, I ought to stop. But a solicitude for your welfare, which cannot end but with my life, and the apprehension of danger, natural to that solicitude, urge me, on an occasion like the present, to offer to your solemn contemplation, and to recommend to your frequent review, some sentiments, which are the result of much reflection, of no inconsiderable observation, and which appear to me all-important to the permanency of your felicity as a People. These will be offered to you with the more freedom, as you can only see in them the disinterested warnings of a parting friend, who can possibly have no personal motive to bias his counsel. Nor can I forget, as an encouragement to it, your indulgent reception of my sentiments on a former and not dissimilar occasion.

Interwoven as is the love of liberty with every ligament of your hearts, no recommendation of mine is necessary to fortify or confirm the attachment.

The unity of Government, which constitutes you one people, is also now dear to you. It is justly so; for it is a main pillar in the edifice of your real independence, the support of your tranquillity at home, your peace abroad; of your safety; of your prosperity; of that very Liberty, which you so highly prize. But as it is easy to foresee, that, from different causes and from different quarters, much pains will be taken, many artifices employed, to weaken in your minds the conviction of this truth; as this is the point in your political fortress against which the batteries of internal and external enemies will be most constantly and actively (though often covertly and insidiously) directed, it is of infinite moment, that you should properly estimate the immense value of your national Union to your collective and individual happiness; that you should cherish a cordial, habitual, and immovable attachment to it; accustoming yourselves to think and speak of it as of the Palladium of your political safety and prosperity; watching for its preservation with jealous anxiety; discountenancing whatever may suggest even a suspicion, that it can in any event be abandoned; and indignantly frowning upon the first dawning of every attempt to

alienate any portion of our country from the rest, or to enfeeble the sacred ties which now link together the various parts.

For this you have every inducement of sympathy and interest. Citizens, by birth or choice, of a common country, that country has a right to concentrate your affections. The name of AMERICAN, which belongs to you, in your national capacity, must always exalt the just pride of Patriotism, more than any appellation derived from local discriminations. With slight shades of difference, you have the same religion, manners, habits, and political principles. You have in a common cause fought and triumphed together; the Independence and Liberty you possess are the work of joint counsels, and joint efforts, of common dangers, sufferings, and successes.

But these considerations, however powerfully they address themselves to your sensibility, are greatly outweighed by those, which apply more immediately to your interest. Here every portion of our country finds the most commanding motives for carefully guarding and preserving the Union of the whole.

The *North*, in an unrestrained intercourse with the *South*, protected by the equal laws of a common government, finds, in the productions of the latter, great additional resources of maritime and commercial enterprise and precious materials of manufacturing industry. The *South*, in the same intercourse, benefiting by the agency of the *North*, sees its agriculture grow and its commerce expand. Turning partly into its own channels the seamen of the *North*, it finds its particular navigation invigorated; and, while it contributes, in different ways, to nourish and increase the general mass of the national navigation, it looks forward to the protection of a maritime strength, to which itself is unequally adapted. The *East*, in a like intercourse with the *West*, already finds, and in the progressive improvement of interior communications, by land and water, will more and more find, a valuable vent for the commodities which it brings from abroad, or manufactures at home. The *West* derives from the *East* supplies requisite to its growth and comfort, and, what is perhaps of still greater consequence, it must of necessity owe the *secure* enjoyment of indispensable *outlets* for its own productions to the weight, influence, and the future maritime strength of the Atlantic side of the Union, directed by an indissoluble community of interest as *one nation*. Any other tenure by which the *West* can hold this essential advantage, whether derived from its own separate strength, or from an apostate and unnatural connexion with any foreign power, must be intrinsically precarious.

While, then, every part of our country thus feels an immediate and particular interest in Union, all the parts combined cannot fail to find in the united mass of means and efforts greater strength, greater resource, proportionably greater security from external danger, a less frequent interruption of their peace by foreign nations; and, what is of inestimable value, they must derive from Union an exemption from those broils and wars between themselves, which so frequently afflict neighboring countries not tied together by the same govern-

ments, which their own rivalships alone would be sufficient to produce, but which opposite foreign alliances, attachments, and intrigues would stimulate and imbitter. Hence, likewise, they will avoid the necessity of those overgrown military establishments, which, under any form of government, are inauspicious to liberty, and which are to be regarded as particularly hostile to Republican Liberty. In this sense it is, that your Union ought to be considered as a main prop of your liberty, and that the love of the one ought to endear to you the preservation of the other.

These considerations speak a persuasive language to every reflecting and virtuous mind, and exhibit the continuance of the UNION as a primary object of Patriotic desire. Is there a doubt, whether a common government can embrace so large a sphere? Let experience solve it. To listen to mere speculation in such a case were criminal. We are authorized to hope, that a proper organization of the whole, with the auxiliary agency of governments for the respective subdivisions, will afford a happy issue to the experiment. It is well worth a fair and full experiment. With such powerful and obvious motives to Union, affecting all parts of our country, while experience shall not have demonstrated its impracticability, there will always be reason to distrust the patriotism of those, who in any quarter may endeavor to weaken its bands.

In contemplating the causes, which may disturb our Union, it occurs as matter of serious concern, that any ground should have been furnished for characterizing parties by *Geographical* discriminations, *Northern* and *Southern*, *Atlantic* and *Western;* whence designing men may endeavor to excite a belief, that there is a real difference of local interests and views. One of the expedients of party to acquire influence, within particular districts, is to misrepresent the opinions and aims of other districts. You cannot shield yourselves too much against the jealousies and heart-burnings, which spring from these misrepresentations; they tend to render alien to each other those, who ought to be bound together by fraternal affection. The inhabitants of our western country have lately had a useful lesson on this head; they have seen, in the negotiation by the Executive, and in the unanimous ratification by the Senate, of the treaty with Spain, and in the universal satisfaction at that event, throughout the United States, a decisive proof how unfounded were the suspicions propagated among them of a policy in the General Government and in the Atlantic States unfriendly to their interests in regard to the Mississippi; they have been witnesses to the formation of two treaties, that with Great Britain, and that with Spain, which secure to them every thing they could desire, in respect to our foreign relations, towards confirming their prosperity. Will it not be their wisdom to rely for the preservation of these advantages on the UNION by which they were procured? Will they not henceforth be deaf to those advisers, if such there are, who would sever them from their brethren, and connect them with aliens?

To the efficacy and permanency of your Union, a Government for the whole is indispensable. No alliances, however strict, between the parts, can be an

adequate substitute; they must inevitably experience the infractions and interruptions, which all alliances in all times have experienced. Sensible of this momentous truth, you have improved upon your first essay, by the adoption of a Constitution of Government better calculated than your former for an intimate Union, and for the efficacious management of your common concerns. This Government, the offspring of our own choice, uninfluenced and unawed, adopted upon full investigation and mature deliberation, completely free in its principles, in the distribution of its powers uniting security with energy, and containing within itself a provision for its own amendment, has a just claim to your confidence and your support. Respect for its authority, compliance with its laws, acquiescence in its measures, are duties enjoined by the fundamental maxims of true Liberty. The basis of our political systems is the right of the people to make and to alter their Constitutions of Government. But the Constitution which at any time exists, till changed by an explicit and authentic act of the whole people, is sacredly obligatory upon all. The very idea of the power and the right of the people to establish Government presupposes the duty of every individual to obey the established Government.

All obstructions to the execution of the Laws, all combinations and associations, under whatever plausible character, with the real design to direct, control, counteract, or awe the regular deliberation and action of the constituted authorities, are destructive of this fundamental principle, and of fatal tendency. They serve to organize faction, to give it an artificial and extraordinary force; to put, in the place of the delegated will of the nation, the will of a party, often a small but artful and enterprising minority of the community; and, according to the alternate triumphs of different parties, to make the public administration the mirror of the ill-concerted and incongruous projects of faction, rather than the organ of consistent and wholesome plans digested by common counsels, and modified by mutual interests.

However combinations or associations of the above description may now and then answer popular ends, they are likely, in the course of time and things, to become potent engines, by which cunning, ambitious, and unprincipled men will be enabled to subvert the power of the people, and to usurp for themselves the reins of government; destroying afterwards the very engines, which have lifted them to unjust dominion.

Towards the preservation of your government, and the permanency of your present happy state, it is requisite, not only that you steadily discountenance irregular oppositions to its acknowledged authority, but also that you resist with care the spirit of innovation upon its principles, however specious the pretexts. One method of assault may be to effect, in the forms of the Constitution, alterations, which will impair the energy of the system, and thus to undermine what cannot be directly overthrown. In all the changes to which you may be invited, remember that time and habit are at least as necessary to fix the true character of governments, as of other human institutions; that experience is the surest

standard, by which to test the real tendency of the existing Constitution of a country; that facility in changes, upon the credit of mere hypothesis and opinion, exposes to perpetual change, from the endless variety of hypothesis and opinion; and remember, especially, that, for the efficient management of your common interests, in a country so extensive as ours, a government of as much vigor as is consistent with the perfect security of liberty, is indispensable. Liberty itself will find in such a government, with powers properly distributed and adjusted, its surest guardian. It is, indeed, little else than a name, where the government is too feeble to withstand the enterprises of faction, to confine each member of the society within the limits prescribed by the laws, and to maintain all in the secure and tranquil enjoyment of the rights of person and property.

I have already intimated to you the danger of parties in the state, with particular reference to the founding of them on geographical discriminations. Let me now take a more comprehensive view, and warn you in the most solemn manner against the baneful effects of the spirit of party, generally.

This spirit, unfortunately, is inseparable from our nature, having its root in the strongest passions of the human mind. It exists under different shapes in all governments, more or less stifled, controlled, or repressed; but, in those of the popular form, it is seen in its greatest rankness, and is truly their worst enemy.

The alternate domination of one faction over another, sharpened by the spirit of revenge, natural to party dissension, which in different ages and countries has perpetrated the most horrid enormities, is itself a frightful despotism. But this leads at length to a more formal and permanent despotism. The disorders and miseries, which result, gradually incline the minds of men to seek security and repose in the absolute power of an individual; and sooner or later the chief of some prevailing faction, more able or more fortunate than his competitors, turns this disposition to the purposes of his own elevation, on the ruins of Public Liberty.

Without looking forward to an extremity of this kind, (which nevertheless ought not to be entirely out of sight,) the common and continual mischiefs of the spirit of party are sufficient to make it the interest and duty of a wise people to discourage and restrain it.

It serves always to distract the Public Councils, and enfeeble the Public Administration. It agitates the Community with ill-founded jealousies and false alarms; kindles the animosity of one part against another; foments, occasionally, riot and insurrection. It opens the door to foreign influence and corruption, which find a facilitated access to the government itself through the channels of party passions. Thus the policy and the will of one country are subjected to the policy and will of another.

There is an opinion, that parties in free countries are useful checks upon the administration of the Government, and serve to keep alive the spirit of

Liberty. This, within certain limits, is probably true; and in Governments of a Monarchical cast, Patriotism may look with indulgence, if not with favor, upon the spirit of party. But in those of the popular character, in Governments purely elective, it is a spirit not to be encouraged. From their natural tendency, it is certain there will always be enough of that spirit for every salutary purpose. And, there being constant danger of excess, the effort ought to be, by force of public opinion, to mitigate and assuage it. A fire not to be quenched, it demands a uniform vigilance to prevent its bursting into a flame, lest, instead of warning, it should consume.

It is important, likewise, that the habits of thinking in a free country should inspire caution, in those intrusted with its administration, to confine themselves within their respective constitutional spheres, avoiding in the exercise of the powers of one department to encroach upon another. The spirit of encroachment tends to consolidate the powers of all the departments in one, and thus to create, whatever the form of government, a real despotism. A just estimate of that love of power, and proneness to abuse it, which predominates in the human heart, is sufficient to satisfy us of the truth of this position. The necessity of reciprocal checks in the exercise of political power, by dividing and distributing it into different depositories, and constituting each the Guardian of the Public Weal against invasions by the others, has been evinced by experiments ancient and modern; some of them in our country and under our own eyes. To preserve them must be as necessary as to institute them. If, in the opinion of the people, the distribution or modification of the constitutional powers be in any particular wrong, let it be corrected by an amendment, in the way which the Constitution designates. But let there be no change by usurpation; for, though this, in one instance, may be the instrument of good, it is the customary weapon by which free governments are destroyed. The precedent must always greatly overbalance in permanent evil any partial or transient benefit, which the use can at any time yield.

Of all the dispositions and habits, which lead to political prosperity, Religion and Morality are indispensable supports. In vain would that man claim the tribute of Patriotism, who should labor to subvert these great pillars of human happiness, these firmest props of the duties of Men and Citizens. The mere Politician, equally with the pious man, ought to respect and to cherish them. A volume could not trace all their connexions with private and public felicity. Let it simply be asked, Where is the security for property, for reputation, for life, if the sense of religious obligation *desert* the oaths, which are the instruments of investigation in Courts of Justice? And let us with caution indulge the supposition, that morality can be maintained without religion. Whatever may be conceded to the influence of refined education on minds of peculiar structure, reason and experience both forbid us to expect, that national morality can prevail in exclusion of religious principle.

It is substantially true, that virtue or morality is a necessary spring of

popular government. The rule, indeed, extends with more or less force to every species of free government. Who, that is a sincere friend to it, can look with indifference upon attempts to shake the foundation of the fabric?

Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened.

As a very important source of strength and security, cherish public credit. One method of preserving it is, to use it as sparingly as possible; avoiding occasions of expense by cultivating peace, but remembering also that timely disbursements to prepare for danger frequently prevent much greater disbursements to repel it; avoiding likewise the accumulation of debt, not only by shunning occasions of expense, but by vigorous exertions in time of peace to discharge the debts, which unavoidable wars may have occasioned, not ungenerously throwing upon posterity the burden, which we ourselves ought to bear. The execution of these maxims belongs to your representatives, but it is necessary that public opinion should co-operate. To facilitate to them the performance of their duty, it is essential that you should practically bear in mind, that towards the payment of debts there must be Revenue; that to have Revenue there must be taxes; that no taxes can be devised, which are not more or less inconvenient and unpleasant; that the intrinsic embarrassment, inseparable from the selection of the proper objects, (which is always a choice of difficulties,) ought to be a decisive motive for a candid construction of the conduct of the government in making it, and for a spirit of acquiescence in the measures for obtaining revenue, which the public exigencies may at any time dictate.

Observe good faith and justice towards all Nations; cultivate peace and harmony with all. Religion and Morality enjoin this conduct; and can it be, that good policy does not equally enjoin it? It will be worthy of a free, enlightened, and, at no distant period, a great Nation, to give to mankind the magnanimous and too novel example of a people always guided by an exalted justice and benevolence. Who can doubt, that, in the course of time and things, the fruits of such a plan would richly repay any temporary advantages, which might be lost by a steady adherence to it? Can it be, that Providence has not connected the permanent felicity of a Nation with its Virtue? The experiment, at least, is recommended by every sentiment which ennobles human nature. Alas! is it rendered impossible by its vices?

In the execution of such a plan, nothing is more essential than that permanent, inveterate antipathies against particular Nations, and passionate attachments for others, should be excluded; and that, in place of them, just and amicable feelings towards all should be cultivated. The Nation, which indulges towards another an habitual hatred, or an habitual fondness, is in some degree a slave. It is a slave to its animosity or to its affection, either of which is sufficient to lead it astray from its duty and its interest. Antipathy in one nation against

another disposes each more readily to offer insult and injury, to lay hold of slight causes of umbrage, and to be haughty and intractable, when accidental or trifling occasions of dispute occur. Hence frequent collisions, obstinate, envenomed, and bloody contests. The Nation, prompted by ill-will and resentment, sometimes impels to war the Government, contrary to the best calculations of policy. The Government sometimes participates in the national propensity, and adopts through passion what reason would reject; at other times, it makes the animosity of the nation subservient to projects of hostility instigated by pride, ambition, and other sinister and pernicious motives. The peace often, sometimes perhaps the liberty, of Nations has been the victim.

So, likewise, a passionate attachment of one Nation for another produces a variety of evils. Sympathy for the favorite Nation, facilitating the illusion of an imaginary common interest, in cases where no real common interest exists, and infusing into one the enmities of the other, betrays the former into a participation in the quarrels and wars of the latter, without adequate inducement or justification. It leads also to concessions to the favorite Nation of privileges denied to others, which is apt doubly to injure the Nation making the concessions; by unnecessarily parting with what ought to have been retained; and by exciting jealousy, ill-will, and a disposition to retaliate, in the parties from whom equal privileges are withheld. And it gives to ambitious, corrupted, or deluded citizens, (who devote themselves to the favorite nation,) facility to betray or sacrifice the interests of their own country, without odium, sometimes even with popularity; gilding, with the appearances of a virtuous sense of obligation, a commendable deference for public opinion, or a laudable zeal for public good, the base or foolish compliances of ambition, corruption, or infatuation.

As avenues to foreign influence in innumerable ways, such attachments are particularly alarming to the truly enlightened and independent Patriot. How many opportunities do they afford to tamper with domestic factions, to practise the arts of seduction, to mislead public opinion, to influence or awe the Public Councils! Such an attachment of a small or weak, towards a great and powerful nation, dooms the former to be the satellite of the latter.

Against the insidious wiles of foreign influence, (I conjure you to believe me, fellow-citizens,) the jealousy of a free people ought to be *constantly* awake; since history and experience prove, that foreign influence is one of the most baneful foes of Republican Government. But that jealousy, to be useful, must be impartial; else it becomes the instrument of the very influence to be avoided, instead of a defence against it. Excessive partiality for one foreign nation, and excessive dislike of another, cause those whom they actuate to see danger only on one side, and serve to veil and even second the arts of influence on the other. Real patriots, who may resist the intrigues of the favorite, are liable to become suspected and odious; while its tools and dupes usurp the applause and confidence of the people, to surrender their interests.

The great rule of conduct for us, in regard to foreign nations, is, in extending our commercial relations, to have with them as little *political* connexion as possible. So far as we have already formed engagements, let them be fulfilled with perfect good faith. Here let us stop.

Europe has a set of primary interests, which to us have none, or a very remote relation. Hence she must be engaged in frequent controversies, the causes of which are essentially foreign to our concerns. Hence, therefore, it must be unwise in us to implicate ourselves, by artificial ties, in the ordinary vicissitudes of her politics, or the ordinary combinations and collisions of her friendships or enmities.

Our detached and distant situation invites and enables us to pursue a different course. If we remain one people, under an efficient government, the period is not far off, when we may defy material injury from external annoyance; when we may take such an attitude as will cause the neutrality, we may at any time resolve upon, to be scrupulously respected; when belligerent nations, under the impossibility of making acquisitions upon us, will not lightly hazard the giving us provocation; when we may choose peace or war, as our interest, guided by justice, shall counsel.

Why forego the advantages of so peculiar a situation? Why quit our own to stand upon foreign ground? Why, by interweaving our destiny with that of any part of Europe, entangle our peace and prosperity in the toils of European ambition, rivalship, interest, humor, or caprice?

It is our true policy to steer clear of permanent alliances with any portion of the foreign world; so far, I mean, as we are now at liberty to do it; for let me not be understood as capable of patronising infidelity to existing engagements. I ho'd the maxim no less applicable to public than to private affairs, that honesty is always the best policy. I repeat it, therefore, let those engagements be observed in their genuine sense. But, in my opinion, it is unnecessary and would be unwise to extend them.

Taking care always to keep ourselves, by suitable establishments, on a respectable defensive posture, we may safely trust to temporary alliances for extraordinary emergencies.

Harmony, and a liberal intercourse with all nations, are recommended by policy, humanity, and interest. But even our commercial policy should hold an equal and impartial hand; neither seeking nor granting exclusive favors or preferences; consulting the natural course of things; diffusing and diversifying by gentle means the streams of commerce, but forcing nothing; establishing, with powers so disposed, in order to give trade a stable course, to define the rights of our merchants, and to enable the government to support them, conventional rules of intercourse, the best that present circumstances and mutual opinion will permit, but temporary, and liable to be from time to time abandoned or varied, as experience and circumstances shall dictate; constantly keeping in view, that it is folly in one nation to look for disinterested favors from another;

that it must pay with a portion of its independence for whatever it may accept under that character; that, by such acceptance, it may place itself in the condition of having given equivalents for nominal favors, and yet of being reproached with ingratitude for not giving more. There can be no greater error than to expect or calculate upon real favors from nation to nation. It is an illusion, which experience must cure, which a just pride ought to discard.

In offering to you, my countrymen, these counsels of an old and affectionate friend, I dare not hope they will make the strong and lasting impression I could wish; that they will control the usual current of the passions, or prevent our nation from running the course, which has hitherto marked the destiny of nations. But, if I may even flatter myself, that they may be productive of some partial benefit, some occasional good; that they may now and then recur to moderate the fury of party spirit, to warn against the mischiefs of foreign intrigue, to guard against the impostures of pretended patriotism; this hope will be a full recompense for the solicitude for your welfare, by which they have been dictated.

How far, in the discharge of my official duties, I have been guided by the principles which have been delineated, the public records and other evidences of my conduct must witness to you and to the world. To myself, the assurance of my own conscience is, that I have at least believed myself to be guided by them.

In relation to the still subsisting war in Europe, my Proclamation of the 22d of April, 1793, is the index to my Plan. Sanctioned by your approving voice, and by that of your Representatives in both Houses of Congress, the spirit of that measure has continually governed me, uninfluenced by any attempts to deter or divert me from it.

After deliberate examination, with the aid of the best lights I could obtain, I was well satisfied that our country, under all the circumstances of the case, had a right to take, and was bound in duty and interest to take, a neutral position. Having taken it, I determined, as far as should depend upon me, to maintain it, with moderation, perseverance, and firmness.

The considerations, which respect the right to hold this conduct, it is not necessary on this occasion to detail. I will only observe, that, according to my understanding of the matter, that right, so far from being denied by any of the Belligerent Powers, has been virtually admitted by all.

The duty of holding a neutral conduct may be inferred, without any thing more, from the obligation which justice and humanity impose on every nation, in cases in which it is free to act, to maintain inviolate the relations of peace and amity towards other nations.

The inducements of interest for observing that conduct will best be referred to your own reflections and experience. With me, a predominant motive has been to endeavor to gain time to our country to settle and mature its yet recent institutions, and to progress without interruption to that degree of strength and

consistency, which is necessary to give it, humanly speaking, the command of its own fortunes.

Though, in reviewing the incidents of my administration, I am unconscious of intentional error, I am nevertheless too sensible of my defects not to think it probable that I may have committed many errors. Whatever they may be, I fervently beseech the Almighty to avert or mitigate the evils to which they may tend. I shall also carry with me the hope, that my Country will never cease to view them with indulgence; and that, after forty-five years of my life dedicated to its service with an upright zeal, the faults of incompetent abilities will be consigned to oblivion, as myself must soon be to the mansions of rest.

Relying on its kindness in this as in other things, and actuated by that fervent love towards it, which is so natural to a man, who views in it the native soil of himself and his progenitors for several generations; I anticipate with pleasing expectation that retreat, in which I promise myself to realize, without alloy, the sweet enjoyment of partaking, in the midst of my fellow citizens, the benign influence of good laws under a free government, the ever favorite object of my heart, and the happy reward, as I trust, of our mutual cares, labors, and dangers.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

United States, September 17th, 1796.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS COVENANT.

PREAMBLE.

In order to promote international co-operation and to achieve international peace and security by the acceptance of obligations not to resort to war, by the prescription of open, just, and honorable relations between nations, by the firm establishment of the understandings of international law as the actual rule of conduct among Governments, and by the maintenance of justice and a scrupulous respect for all treaty obligations in the dealings of organized peoples with one another, the high contracting parties agree to this covenant of the League of Nations.

COVENANT.

ARTICLE I.

The original members of the League of Nations shall be those of the signatories which are named in the annex to this covenant and also such of those other States named in the annex as shall accede without reservation to this covenant. Such accessions shall be effected by a declaration deposited with the Secretariat within two months of the

coming into force of the covenant. Notice thereof shall be sent to all other members of the League.

Any fully self-governing State, dominion, or colony not named in the annex may become a member of the League if its admission is agreed to by two-thirds of the Assembly, provided that it shall give effective guarantees of its sincere intention to observe its international obligations, and shall accept such regulations as may be prescribed by the League in regard to its military, naval, and air forces and armaments.

Any member of the League may, after two years' notice of its intention so to do, withdraw from the League, provided that all its international obligations and all its obligations under this covenant shall have been fulfilled at the time of its withdrawal.

Article II.

The action of the League under this covenant shall be effected through the instrumentality of an Assembly and of a Council, with a permanent Secretariat.

Article III.

The Assembly shall consist of representatives of the members of the League.

The Assembly shall meet at stated intervals and from time to time, as occasion may require, at the seat of the League, or at such other place as may be decided upon.

The Assembly may deal at its meetings with any matter within the sphere of action of the League or affecting the peace of the world.

At meetings of the Assembly each member of the League shall have one vote, and may have not more than three representatives.

Article IV.

The Council shall consist of representatives of the United States of America, of the British Empire, of France, of Italy, and of Japan, together with representatives of four other members of the League. These four members of the League shall be selected by the Assembly from time to time in its discretion. Until the appointment of the representatives of the four members of the League first selected by the Assembly, representatives of . . . . . shall be members of the Council.

With the approval of the majority of the Assembly, the Council may name additional members of the League, whose representatives shall always be members of the Council; the Council with like approval may increase the number of members of the League to be selected by the Assembly for representation to the Council.

The Council shall meet from time to time as occasion may require, and at least once a year, at the seat of the League, or at such other place as may be decided upon.

The Council may deal at its meetings with any matter within the sphere of action of the League or affecting the peace of the world.

Any member of the League not represented on the Council shall be invited to send a representative to sit as a member at any meeting of the Council during the consideration of matters especially affecting the interests of that member of the League.

At meetings of the Council each member of the League represented on the Council shall have one vote, and may have not more than one representative.

Article V.

Except where otherwise expressly provided in this covenant, or by the terms of this treaty, decisions at any meeting of the Assembly or of the Council shall require the agreement of all the members of the League represented at the meeting.

All matters of procedure at meetings of the Assembly or of the Council, the appointment of committees to investigate particular matters, shall be regulated by the Assembly or by the Council, and may be decided by a majority of the members of the League represented at the meeting. The first meeting of the Assembly and the first meeting of the Council shall be summoned by the President of the United States of America.

Article VI.

The permanent Secretariat shall be established at the seat of the League. The Secretariat shall comprise a Secretary General and such secretaries and staff as may be required.

The first Secretary General shall be the person named in the annex; thereafter the Secretary General shall be appointed by the Council, with the approval of the majority of the Assembly.

The secretaries and the staff of the Secretariat shall be appointed by the Secretary General, with the approval of the Council.

The Secretary General shall act in that capacity at all meetings of the Assembly and of the Council.

The expenses of the Secretariat shall be borne by the members of the League in accordance with the apportionment of the expenses of the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union.

Article VII.

The seat of the League is established at Geneva.

The Council may at any time decide that the seat of the League shall be established elsewhere.

All positions under or in connection with the League, including the Secretariat, shall be open equally to men and women.

Representatives of the members of the League and officials of the League, when engaged on the business of the League, shall enjoy diplomatic privileges and immunities.

The buildings and other property occupied by the League or its officials, or by representatives attending its meetings, shall be inviolable.

Article VIII.

The members of the League recognize that the maintenance of a peace requires the reduction of national armaments to the lowest point consistent with the national safety and the enforcement by common action of international obligations.

The Council, taking account of the geographical situation and circumstances of each State, shall formulate plans for such reduction for the consideration and action of the several Governments.

Such plans shall be subject to reconsideration and revision at least every ten years.

After these plans shall have been adopted by the several Governments, limits of armaments therein fixed shall not be exceeded without the concurrence of the Council.

The members of the League agree that the manufacture by private enterprise of munitions and implements of war is open to grave objections. The Council shall advise how the evil effects attendant upon such manufacture can be prevented, due regard being had to the necessities of those members of the League which are not able to manufacture the munitions and implements of war necessary for their safety.

The members of the League undertake to interchange full and frank information as to the scale of their armaments, their military, naval, and air programs and the condition of such of their industries as are adaptable to warlike purposes.

Article IX.

A permanent commission shall be constituted to advise the Council on the execution of the provisions of Articles I and VIII, and on military, naval, and air questions generally.

Article X.

The members of the League undertake to respect and preserve as against external aggression the territorial integrity and existing politi-

cal independence of all members of the League. In case of any such aggression or in case of any threat or danger of such aggression, the Council shall advise upon the means by which this obligation shall be fulfilled.

Article XI.

Any war or threat of war, whether immediately affecting any of the members of the League or not, is hereby declared a matter of concern to the whole League, and the League shall take any action that may be deemed wise and effectual to safeguard the peace of nations. In case any such emergency should arise, the Secretary General shall, on the request of any member of the League, forthwith summon a meeting of the Council.

It is also declared to be the fundamental right of each member of the League to bring to the attention of the Assembly or of the Council any circumstance whatever affecting international relations which threatens to disturb either the peace or the good understanding between nations upon which peace depends.

Article XII.

The members of the League agree that if there should arise between them any dispute likely to lead to a rupture they will submit the matter either to arbitration or an inquiry by the Council, and they agree in no case to resort to war until three months after the award by the arbitrators or the report by the Council.

In any case under this article the award of the arbitrators shall be made within a reasonable time, and the report of the Council shall be made within six months after the submission of the dispute.

Article XIII.

The members of the League agree that whenever any dispute shall arise between them which they recognize to be suitable for submission to arbitration and which cannot be satisfactorily settled by diplomacy, they will submit the whole subject matter to arbitration. Disputes as to the interpretation of a treaty, as to any question of international law, or as to the existence of any fact which, if established, would constitute a breach of any international obligation, or as to the extent and nature of the reparation to be made for any such breach, are declared to be among those which are generally suitable for submission to arbitration. For the consideration of any such dispute, the court of arbitration to which the case is referred shall be the court agreed on by the parties to the dispute or stipulated in any convention existing between them.

The members of the League agree that they will carry out in full good faith any award that may be rendered, and that they will not resort to war against a member of the League which complies therewith. In the event of any failure to carry out such an award, the Council shall propose what steps should be taken to give effect thereto.

Article XIV.

The Council shall formulate and submit to the members of the League for adoption plans for the establishment of a permanent court of international justice. The court shall be competent to hear and determine any dispute of an international character which the parties thereto submit to it. The court may also give an advisory opinion upon any dispute or question referred to it by the Council or by the Assembly.

Article XV.

If there should arise between members of the League any dispute likely to lead to a rupture, which is not submitted to arbitration as above, the members of the League agree that they will submit the matter to the Council. Any party to the dispute may effect such submission by giving notice of the existence of the dispute to the Secretary General, who will make all necessary arrangements for a full investigation and consideration thereof. For this purpose the parties to the dispute will communicate to the Secretary General as promptly as possible statements of their case, all the relevant facts and papers; the Council may forthwith direct the publication thereof.

The Council shall endeavor to effect a settlement of any dispute, and if such efforts are successful, a statement shall be made public, giving such facts and explanations regarding the dispute and terms of settlement thereof as the Council may deem appropriate.

If the dispute is not thus settled, the Council either unanimously or by a majority vote shall make and publish a report containing a statement of the facts of the dispute and the recommendations which are deemed just and proper in regard thereto.

Any member of the League represented on the Council may make public a statement of the facts of the dispute and of the conclusions regarding the same.

If a report by the Council is unanimously agreed to by the members thereof other than the representatives of one or more of the parties to the dispute, the members of the League agree that they will not go to war with any party to the dispute which complies with the recommendations of the report.

If the Council fails to reach a report which is unanimously agreed to by the members thereof, other than the representatives of one or more of the parties to this dispute, the members of the League reserve to themselves the right to take such action as they consider necessary for the maintenance of right and justice.

If the dispute between the parties is claimed by one of them, and is found by the Council to arise out of a matter which by international law is solely within the domestic jurisdiction of that party, the Council shall so report and shall make no recommendations as to its settlement.

The Council may in any case under this article refer the dispute to the Assembly. The dispute shall be so referred at the request of either party to the dispute, provided that such request be made within fourteen days after the submission of the dispute to the Council.

In any case referred to the Assembly, all the provisions of this article and of Article XII, relating to the action and powers of the Council, shall apply to the action and powers of the Assembly, if concurred in by the representatives of those members of the League represented on the Council and of the majority of the other members of the League, exclusive in each case of the representatives of the parties to the dispute, shall have the same force as a report by the Council concurred in by all the members thereof other than the representatives of one or more of the parties to the dispute.

Article XVI.

Should any member of the League resort to war in disregard of its covenants under Articles XII, XIII, or XV it shall *ipso facto* be deemed to have committed an act of war against all other members of the League, which hereby undertake immediately to subject it to the severance of all trade or financial relations, the prohibition of all intercourse between their nationals and the nationals of the covenant-breaking State and the nationals of any other State, whether a member of the League or not.

It shall be the duty of the Council in such case to recommend to the several Governments concerned what effective military or naval forces the members of the League shall severally contribute to the armaments or forces to be used to protect the covenants of the League.

The members of the League agree, further, that they will mutually support one another in the financial and economic measures which are taken under this article, in order to minimize the loss and inconvenience resulting from the above measures, and that they will mutually support one another in resisting any special measures aimed at

one of their number by the covenant-breaking State, and that they will take the necessary steps to afford passage through their territory to the forces of any of the members of the League which are co-operating to protect the covenants of the League.

Any member of the League which has violated any covenant of the League may be declared to be no longer a member of the League by a vote of the Council concurred in by the representatives of all the other members of the League represented thereon.

Article XVII.

In the event of a dispute between a member of the League and a State which is not a member of the League, or between States not members of the League, the State or States not members of the League shall be invited to accept the obligations of membership in the League for the purpose of such dispute, upon such conditions as the Council may deem just. If such invitation is accepted, the provisions of Articles XII to XVI, inclusive, shall be applied with such modifications as may be deemed necessary by the Council.

Upon such invitation being given, the Council shall immediately institute an inquiry into the circumstances of the dispute and recommend such action as may seem best and most effectual in the circumstances.

If a State so invited shall refuse to accept the obligations of membership in the League for the purposes of such dispute, and shall resort to war against a member of the League, the provisions of Article XVI shall be applicable as against the State taking such action.

If both parties to the dispute, when so invited, refuse to accept the obligations of membership in the League for the purposes of such dispute, the Council may take such measures and make such recommendations as will prevent hostilities and will result in the settlement of the dispute.

Article XVIII.

Every convention or international engagement entered into henceforward by any member of the League shall be forthwith registered with the Secretariat, and shall, as soon as possible, be published by it. No such treaty or international engagement shall be binding until so registered.

Article XIX.

The Assembly may, from time to time, advise the reconsideration by members of the League of treaties which have become inapplicable, and the consideration of international conditions whose continuance might endanger the peace of the world.

Article XX.

The members of the League severally agree that this covenant is accepted as abrogating all obligations or understandings *inter se* which are inconsistent with the terms thereof, and solemnly undertake that they will not hereafter enter into any engagements inconsistent with the terms thereof.

In case a member of the League shall, before becoming a member of the League, have undertaken any obligations inconsistent with the terms of this covenant, it shall be the duty of such member to take immediate steps to procure its release from such obligations.

Article XXI.

Nothing in this covenant shall be deemed to affect the validity of international engagements, such as treaties of arbitration or regional understandings like the Monroe Doctrine, for securing the maintenance of peace.

Article XXII.

To those colonies and territories which, as a consequence of the late war, have ceased to be under the sovereignty of the States which formerly governed them, and which are inhabited by peoples not yet able to stand by themselves under the strenuous conditions of the modern world, there should be applied the principle that the well-being and development of such peoples form a sacred trust of civilization, and that securities for the performance of this trust should be embodied in this covenant.

The best method of giving practicable effect to this principle is that the tutelage of such peoples be intrusted to advanced nations who, by reason of their resources, their experience, or their geographical position, can best undertake this responsibility, and who are willing to accept it, and that this tutelage should be exercised by them as mandataries on behalf of the League.

The character of the mandate must differ according to the stage of development of the people, the geographical situation of the territory,

its economic conditions and other similar circumstances. Certain communities formerly belonging to the Turkish Empire have reached a stage of development where their existence as independent nations can be provisionally recognized, subject to the rendering of administrative advice and assistance by a mandatary until such time as they are able to stand alone. The wishes of these communities must be a principal consideration in the selection of the mandatary.

Other peoples, especially those of Central Africa, are at such a stage that the mandatary must be responsible for the administration of the territory under conditions which will guarantee freedom of conscience or religion subject only to the maintenance of public order and morals, the prohibition of abuses such as the slave trade, the arms traffic, and the liquor traffic, and the prevention of the establishment of fortifications or military and naval bases and of military training of the natives for other than police purposes, and the defense of territory, and will also secure equal opportunities for the trade and commerce of other members of the League.

There are territories, such as Southwest Africa and certain of the South Pacific Islands which, owing to the sparseness of their population or their small size or their remoteness from the centers of civilization or their geographical contiguity to the territory of the mandatary and other circumstances can be best administered under the laws of the mandatary as integral portions of its territory, subject to the safeguards above mentioned in the interests of the indigenous population. In every case of mandate, the mandatary shall render to the Council an annual report in reference to the territory committed to its charge.

The degree of authority, control, or administration to be exercised by the mandatary, if not previously agreed upon by the members of the League, shall be explicitly defined in each case by the Council.

A permanent commission shall be constituted to receive and examine the annual reports of the mandataries and to advise the Council on all matters relating to the observance of the mandates.

Article XXIII.

Subject to and in accordance with the provisions of international conventions existing or hereafter to be agreed upon, the members of the League (a) will endeavor to secure and maintain fair and humane conditions of labor for men, women, and children, both in their own countries and in all countries to which their commercial and industrial relations extend, and for that purpose will establish and maintain the necessary international organizations; (b) undertake to secure just treatment of the native inhabitants of territories under their control;

(c) will intrust the League with the general supervision over the execution of agreements with regard to the traffic in women and children and the traffic in opium and other dangerous drugs; (d) will intrust the League with the general supervision of the trade in arms and ammunition with the countries in which the control of this traffic is necessary in the common interest; (e) will make provision to secure and maintain freedom of communication and of transit and equitable treatment for the commerce of all members of the League. In this connection the special necessities of the regions devastated during the war of 1914-'18 shall be in mind; (f) will endeavor to take steps in matters of international concern for the prevention and control of disease.

Article XXIV.

There shall be placed under the direction of the League all international bureaus already established by general treaties if the parties to such treaties consent. All such international bureaus and all commissions for the regulation of matters of international interest hereafter constituted shall be placed under the direction of the League.

In all matters of international interest which are regulated by general conventions, but which are not placed under the control of international bureaus of commissions, the Secretariat of the League shall, subject to the consent of the Council, and if desired by the parties, collect and distribute all relevant information and shall render any other assistance which may be necessary or desirable.

The Council may include as part of the expenses of the Secretariat the expenses of any bureau or commission which is placed under the direction of the League.

Article XXV.

The members of the League agree to encourage and promote the establishment and co-operation of duly authorized voluntary national Red Cross organizations having as purposes the improvement of health, the prevention of diseases, and the mitigation of suffering throughout the world.

Article XXVI.

Amendments to this covenant will take effect when ratified by the members of the League, whose representatives compose the Council and by a majority of the members of the League whose representatives compose the Assembly.

No such amendment shall bind any member of the League which signifies its dissent therefrom, but in that case it shall cease to be a member of the League.

ANNEX TO THE COVENANT.

I. Original members of the League of Nations.

Signatories of the Treaty of Peace:

United States of America, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, British Empire, Canada, Australia, South Africa, New Zealand, India, China, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Ecuador, France, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Hedjaz, Honduras, Italy, Japan, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Roumania, Serb-Croat-Slovene State, Siam, Uruguay.

States invited to accede to the covenant:

Argentine Republic, Chile, Colombia, Denmark, Netherlands, Norway, Paraguay, Persia, Salvador, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Venezuela.

II. First Secretary General of the League of Nations: Sir Eric Drummond.

GENERAL CHRONOLOGY.

ANCIENT TIMES.

B. C.

2700 Menes first King of Egypt.
2500 Supposed founding of the Chaldæan Empire by Nimrod.
2240 Supposed founding of China by Fohi.
2217 Supposed founding of Nineveh by Asshur.
2100 Egypt conquered by the Hyksos, or Shepherd Kings.
2082 Abraham settled in the Promised Land of Canaan.
1867 Jacob and his family settled in Egypt.
1856 Supposed founding of Argos, in Greece, by Inachus.
1652 Moses led the Israelites out of Egypt.
1612 Death of Moses.
" The Israelites, led by Joshua, settled in Canaan.
1556 Supposed founding of Athens, in Greece, by Cecrops.
1525 The Hyksos expelled from Egypt.
1520 Supposed founding of Sparta, in Greece, by Lelex.
" Supposed founding of Corinth, in Greece.

1493 Supposed founding of Thebes, in Greece, by Cadmus.
1263 Argonautic Expedition.
1250 The Assyrian Empire founded.
1245 Overthrow of the Midianites by Gideon.
1194–1184 The Trojan War.
1100 Return of the Heraclidæ.
1095–1055 Saul first King over Israel.
1068 Death of Codrus, the last King of Athens.
1055–1015 David King over Israel.
1050 Tyre became the leading Phœnician state.
1015–975 Solomon King over Israel.
1004 Solomon completed the Temple of Jerusalem.
975 Revolt of the Ten Tribes.
878 Carthage founded by the Phœnicians under Queen Dido.
850 Lycurgus established his code at Sparta.
776 The First Olympiad.
753 Rome founded by Romulus.
743–723 The First Messenian War.
721 The Israelites carried into the Assyrian Captivity.
716 Disappearance of Romulus.
708 The Kingdom of Media founded.
685–668 The Second Messenian War.
625 Nineveh destroyed and the Assyrian Empire overthrown by the Medes and Babylonians.
" The Bablyonian Empire founded by Nabopolassar.
624 Draco framed a code of laws for Athens.
600 Rise of Buddhism in India.
594 Solon framed a code for Athens.
586 The Jews carried into the Babylonian Captivity.
560 Usurpation of Pisistratus at Athens.
559 Cyrus the Great founded the Medo-Persian Empire.
546 Cyrus the Great conquered the Kingdom of Lydia.
538 Cyrus the Great conquered Babylon.
536 Cyrus the Great permitted the Jews to return to Palestine.
530 Cyrus the Great defeated and killed by the Scythians.
525 Cambyses, King of Persia, conquered Egypt.
521 Darius Hystaspes became King of Persia.
510 Hippias expelled from Athens and the Athenian Republic restored.
509 Tarquin the Proud expelled from Rome.
" Rome becomes a Republic.
495 Revolt of the Greek cities of Asia Minor against Persia.
494 Plebeian insurrection at Rome.
" Tribunes chosen at Rome.

490 Banishment of Coriolanus from Rome.
" Commencement of the Persian War against Greece.
" Persian invasion of Greece.
" Battle of Marathon.
480 Invasion of Greece by Xerxes, King of Persia.
" Battle of Thermopylæ.
" Athens burned by the Persians.
" Battle of Salamis,
479 Battle of Platæa, } Greek victories over the Persians,
" Battle of Mycalé,
471 Themistocles banished from Athens.
469 Battle of Eurymedon.
464 Earthquake at Sparta.
463 Rebellion of the Spartan Helots and the Messenians.
460 Ezra and Nehemiah rebuild Jerusalem.
458 Dictatorship of Cincinnatus.
450 Decemvirs chosen in Rome.
449 Peace made between Greece and Persia.
448 Abolition of the Office of Decemvir.
431 Commencement of the Peloponnesian War.
429 Plague at Athens and death of Pericles.
421 Peace of Nicias,
415 Athenian Expedition against Syracuse.
405 Battle of Ægospotamos.
404 Surrender of Athens to the Spartans.
" The Thirty Tyrants rule in Athens.
403 The Council of Ten in Athens.
" Democracy restored in Athens.
400 Retreat of the Ten Thousand Greeks from Persia.
399 Death of Socrates.
395 Conquest of Veii by the Romans under Camillus.
387 Peace of Antalcidas.
" Italy invaded by the Gauls under Brennus.
" Battle on the Allia,—the Romans defeated by the Gauls.
" Rome taken and burned by the Gauls.
383 Commencement of the Theban War.
371 Battle of Leuctra.
366 Adoption of the Laws of Caius Licinius Stolo.
362 Battle of Mantinea.
358 Beginning of the Sacred War in Greece.
350 Destruction of Sidon.
343 First war between the Romans and Samnites begun.
342 War between the Romans and the Latins.

338 Battle of Vesuvius,—Patriotic devotion of Decius.
" Battle of Chæronea and end of Greek independence.
336 Assassination of Philip of Macedon.
335 Thebes, Greece, destroyed by Alexander the Great.
334 Alexander's invasion of the Persian Empire.
" Battle of the Granicus,
333 Battle of the Issus, } Victories of Alexander the Great.
332 Tyre taken and destroyed by Alexander the Great.
" Siege and capture of Gaza by Alexander the Great.
331 Founding of Alexandria in Egypt.
" Battle of Arbela and Gaugamela.
330 Assassination of Darius Codomannus, King of Persia.
328 Conquest of Scythia by Alexander the Great.
327 Alexander's invasion of India and defeat of Porus.
324 Death of Alexander the Great at Babylon.
322 Demosthenes destroys himself by poison.
321 The Romans defeated by the Samnites and obliged to pass under the yoke
301 Battle of Ipsus and dismemberment of Alexander's empire.
290 Subjugation of the Samnites by the Romans.
281 Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, engages in a war with Rome.
280 Invasion of Macedon and Greece by the Gauls under Brennus.
279 Defeat of the Gauls at Thermopylæ.
275 Defeat of Pyrrhus by the Romans.
272 Death of Pyrrhus at Argos.
" Conquest of Tarentum by the Romans.
263 Commencement of the First Punic War.
255 Defeat of the Romans and captivity of Regulus.
250 Battle of Panormus—Defeat of the Carthaginians.
" Rise of the Achaian League under Aratus of Sicyon.
" The Parthian Empire founded.
240 End of the First Punic War.
238 Sicily made a Roman province.
228 Conquest of the Illyrians by the Romans.
222 Conquest of the Cisalpine Gauls by the Romans.
221 Death of Cleomenes III. and capture of Sparta by the Macedonians.
219 Capture of Saguntum, in Spain, by the Carthaginians.
218 Beginning of the Second Punic War.
217 Hannibal's passage of the Alps and invasion of Italy.
" Battle of the Ticinus,
" Battle of the Trebia,
" Battle of Placentia, } Victories of Hannibal.
" Battle of Trasimenus,
216 Battle of Cannæ,

215 Building of the Great Wall in China.
212 Syracuse taken and destroyed by the Romans.
207 Battle of the Metaurus,—Hasdrubal defeated by the Romans.
" Sparta subdued by Philopœmen, the successor of Aratus.
202 Battle of Zama and end of the Second Punic War.
197 Battle of Cynoscephalæ.
191 Battle of Magnesia.
183 Death of Hannibal and Scipio Africanus.
168 Battle of Pydna and conquest of Macedon by the Romans.
149 Beginning of the Third Punic War.
146 Carthage taken and destroyed by Scipio Æmilianus.
" Destruction of Corinth and conquest of Greece by the Romans.
133 Numantia, in Spain, taken and destroyed by Scipio Æmilianus.
132 Tiberius Gracchus endeavors to secure the enforcement of the agrarian law, but is defeated and slain.
121 Caius Gracchus attempts to secure the enforcement of the agrarian law, but is killed in a tumult.
106 Jugurtha, King of Numidia, defeated and captured by the Romans.
101 The Cimbri and Teutones annihilated by the Romans.
90 The Social War in Italy begun.—It lasted two years.
88 First war between Rome and Mithridates, King of Pontus.
" The civil war between Marius and Sylla begun.
86 Dictatorship and death of Marius.
84 Sylla defeats Mithridates.
81 Sylla assumes the the Dictatorship.
78 Resignation and death of Sylla.
70 The rebellion of Sertorius in Spain suppressed.
" The rebellious slaves in Italy under Spartacus subdued by Crassus.
67 The Cilician pirates subdued by Pompey.
66 Pompey's victory over Mithridates.
65 Pompey overthrows the Syrian Empire of the Seleucidæ.
63 Jerusalem taken and destroyed by Pompey.
" Mithridates terminates his life by poison.
" Catiline's conspiracy at Rome.
60 The First Triumvirate at Rome,—Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus.
60 Defeat and death of Crassus in Parthia.
58 Julius Cæsar made governor of Gaul.
55 Cæsar's first invasion of Britain.
54 Cæsar's second invasion of Britain.
52 Final conquest of Gaul by Cæsar.
49 The civil war between Pompey and Cæsar commenced.
" Cæsar crosses the Rubicon and marches to Rome.
48 Battle of Pharsalia and assassination of Pompey.

47 Cæsar overthrows Ptolemy in Egypt.
" Cæsar's triumph over Pharnaces, the son of Mithridates.
46 Battle of Thapsus,—the Roman republicans defeated by Cæsar.
45 Battle of Munda,—Pompey's sons defeated by Cæsar.
44 Dictatorship of Cæsar.
" Assassination of Cæsar.
43 The Second Triumvirate at Rome,—Antony, Octavius, and Lepidus.
42 Battle of Philippi and suicide of Brutus and Cassius.
31 Battle of Actium and suicide of Mark Antony and Cleopatra.
30 Egypt becomes a Roman province.
" Octavius becomes Emperor, with the title of Augustus.

A. D.
9 Defeat of the Roman legions under Varus by the Germans.
14 Death of the Emperor Augustus.
51 Caractacus, the British chief, carried a captive to Rome.
64 Burning of Rome by order of the Emperor Nero.
" Defeat of the British queen, Boadicea, by Suetonius Paulinus.
68 Overthrow and death of Nero.
70 Jerusalem taken and destroyed by Titus.
79 Destruction of Herculaneum and Pompeii.
96 Final conquest of Britain by the Romans under Julius Agricola.
226 Beginning of the Persian Empire of the Sassanidæ.
305 Abdication of the Emperor Diocletian.
312 Constantine the Great becomes sole Emperor of Rome.
325 Constantine the Great embraces Christianity.
336 Constantine makes Constantinople the capital of his empire.
357 Death of Constantine the Great at Nicomedia, in Asia Minor.
361 Julian the Apostate becomes Emperor of Rome.
363 Julian's unfortunate expedition against the New Persians.
364 The Roman Empire divided between Valentinian and Valens.
396 Stilicho, the general of Honorius, defeats the Goths in Greece.
406 The Romans under Stilicho defeat the barbarians.
410 Rome taken and pillaged by Alaric, King of the Goths.
451 Attila, King of the Huns, defeated at Chalons by the Romans.
452 Attila's retreat into Pannonia.
472 Rome taken and plundered by Genseric, King of the Vandals.
476 Downfall of the Roman Empire of the West.

THE MIDDLE AGES.

A. D.
486 Clovis, King of the Franks, conquers Gaul.
496 Clovis defeats the Alemanni in the battle of Tolbiac and embraces Christianity.

507 Clovis puts to death the other chiefs of the Franks.
527 Justinian becomes Emperor of the East.
535 Belisarius overthrows the Vandal kingdom in Africa.
537 Belisarius defends Rome against the attacks of the Goths.
554 Tejas, the last Gothic king, slain in battle with Narses.
565 Death of the Emperor Justinian.
568 The Lombard kingdom in Italy founded by Alboin.
622 The Hegira, or Mohammed's flight from Mecca.
632 Death of Mohammed.
638 Conquest of Syria by the Saracens.
640 Conquest of Egypt by the Saracens.
651 Conquest of Persia by the Saracens.
660 Accession of the Ommiyades.
712 Invasion and conquest of Spain by the Saracens.
732 Defeat of the Saracens near Tours by Charles Martel.
752 The dynasty of the Ommiyades overthrown by the Abbassides.
" Beginning of the Pope's temporal power.
768 Death of Pepin the Little and division of the Frank kingdom.
771 Charlemagne becomes sole monarch of the Franks.
772 Charlemagne forces the Saxons to a peace.
775 Charlemagne overthrows the Lombard kingdom in Italy.
778 Charlemagne's rear-guard cut to pieces in the pass of Roncesvalles.
800 Charlemagne crowned at Rome Emperor of the West.
804 Final subjugation of the Saxons by Charlemagne.
814 Death of Charlemagne.
827 Founding of the Kingdom of England by Egbert.
841 Battle of Fontenaille.
843 Partition Treaty of Verdun.
871 Alfred the Great becomes King of England.
875 The Kingdom of Norway founded by Harald Fairhair and Denmark by Gorm the Old.
898 Charles the Simple becomes King of France.
900 The Ynglians found the Kingdom of Sweden.
901 Death of Alfred the Great.
911 Germany becomes an elective empire.
933 Henry the Fowler, Emperor of Germany, defeats the Magyars at Merseberg.
973 Otho the Great, Emperor of Germany, defeats the Hungarians at Lechfeld.
981 Greenland discovered by an Icelander.
987 Hugh Capet ascends the throne of France.
997 Death of Hugh Capet.
1000 Stephen the Pious assumes the dignity of King of Hungary.

1000 Vladimir the Great becomes sovereign of Russia.
1002 Greenland colonized by Icelanders.
" Massacre of the Danes in England.
1016 Canute the Great of Denmark becomes King of England.
1025 Conversion of Canute the Great to Christianity.
1031 Dissolution of the Saracen Caliphate of Cordova.
1060 Robert Guiscard, the Norman duke, conquers Southern Italy.
1066 Battle of Hastings and conquest of England by Duke William of Normandy, who then becomes King of England.
1077 Henry IV. of Germany humiliated by Pope Gregory VII. (Hildebrand).
1081 The Emperor Henry IV. leads an expedition against Hildebrand.
1081 Hildebrand deposed and Clement III. made Pope.
1085 Pope Urban II., at the Council of Clermont, preaches the First Crusade.
1096 The First Crusade undertaken.
1097 The Christian army under Godfrey of Bouillon arrives in Palestine.
" The Crusaders besiege and take Antioch.
1099 Capture of Jerusalem by the Crusaders.
1130 Roger II. founds the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily.
1147 St. Bernard of Clairvaux originates the Second Crusade.
1152 Frederic Barbarossa becomes Emperor of Germany.
1154 Henry Plantagenet ascends the throne of England.
1170 Assassination of Thomas á Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury.
1172 Ireland conquered by King Henry II. of England.
1176 Battles of Lignano,—Frederic Barbarossa defeated by the Milanese.
1179 Henry the Lion deprived of his territories by Frederic Barbarossa.
1180 Philip Augustus ascends the throne of France.
1187 Sultan Saladin of Egypt wrests Jerusalem from the Christians.
1189 Death of Henry II. of England and accession of Richard the Lion-hearted.
1190 The Third Crusade begun,—Death of Frederic Barbarossa.
1191 Defeat of Saladin by Richard the Lion-hearted.
1192 Richard the Lion-hearted imprisoned in Germany.
1199 Death of Richard the Lion-hearted and accession of John.
1204 Fourth Crusade and temporary subversion of the Greek Empire.
1205 The Pope causes the Cross to be preached against the Albigenses.
1213 The Child's Crusade.
1215 King John of England forced to sign Magna Charta.
1218 Frederic II. becomes Emperor of Germany.
1226 Louis IX., or St. Louis, becomes King of France.
1227 Zingis-Khan, chief of the Moguls, begins his career of conquest.
1228 The Emperor Frederic II. undertakes the Fifth Crusade.
1234 King Andrew II. of Hungary grants the Golden Privilege.
1237 Russia made tributary to the Khan of the Golden Horde.

1244 Defeat of the Christians at Gaza by the Corasmins.
1250 Death of the Emperor Frederic II. of Germany.
" The Sixth Crusade,—Captivity of St. Louis.
1258 The Moguls overthrow the Caliphate of Bagdad.
1266 The foundations of the English House of Commons laid.
1270 The Seventh Crusade,—Death of St. Louis.
1273 Count Rudolf of Hapsburg elected Emperor of Germany.
1282 The Massacre of the Sicilian Vespers.
1285 Philip the Fair becomes King of France.
1291 Acre, the last Christian stronghold in Palestine, taken by the Turks.
1296 Battle of Dunbar,—John Baliol defeated by Edward I. of England.
" Battle of Stirling,—the English defeated by William Wallace.
1298 Battle of Falkirk,—William Wallace defeated by Edward I.
1305 Martyrdom of William Wallace, the Scottish patriot.
" Avignon, in France, becomes the seat of the papacy.
1314 Battle of Bannockburn,—defeat of Edward II. of England.
1315 Battle of Morgarten,—the Austrians defeated by the Swiss.
1328 Philip of Valois ascends the throne of France.
1346 Battle of Crecy,—Edward III. of England defeats the French.
" Battle of Nevil's Cross,—David Bruce taken prisoner.
1347 Calais surrendered to Edward III. of England after a long siege.
" Cola di Rienzi becomes the head of a new Roman Republic.
1354 Assassination of Cola di Rienzi, the Last of the Tribunes.
1356 Battle of Poitiers,—King John of France taken prisoner.
1364 Death of John the Good of France.
1376 Death of the Black Prince.
1377 Death of Edward III. of England.
1381 Wat Tyler's Insurrection in England.
1386 Battle of Sempach,—Patriotic devotion of Arnold Winkelried.
1397 Union of Calmar,—Denmark, Sweden, and Norway united.
1399 Dethronement of Richard II. of England by Henry of Lancaster.
1402 Battle of Angora,—Sultan Bajazet taken prisoner by Tamerlane.
1403 Battle of Shrewsbury,—Henry IV. of England defeats the barons.
1414 The Council of Constance assembles.
1415 Battle of Agincourt,—Henry V. of England defeats the French.
1417 Martyrdom of John Huss and Jerome of Prague.
1419 Beginning of the Hussite War, which lasts seventeen years.
1422 Treaty of Troyes,—Accession of Henry VI. of England.
1429 Joan of Arc compels the English to raise the siege of Orleans.
1431 Joan of Arc, the Maid of Orleans, perished at the stake.
1453 The English driven out of France.
" Sultan Mohammed II. captures Constantinople and puts an end to the Byzantine or Greek Empire.

1455 Commencement of the Wars of the Roses in England.
1461 Edward IV. becomes King of England and Louis XI. of France.
1471 Battles of Barnet and Tewksbury,—the Lancastrians overthrown.
1476 Battles of Granson and Morat,—defeats of Charles the Bold.
1477 Battle of Nancy and death of Charles the Bold of Burgundy.
1479 Union of Aragon and Castile under Ferdinand and Isabella.
1483 Death of Edward IV. of England and Louis XI. of France.
1485 Battle of Bosworth Field and death of Richard III.
1486 Bartholomew Diaz discovers the Cape of Good Hope.
1492 The Moorish Kingdom of Granda conquered by Ferdinand and Isabella.
" Discovery of America by Christopher Columbus.
1493 Founding of San Domingo by Columbus.
1497 Vasco da Gama's voyage to India around the Cape of Good Hope.
" Discovery of North America by Sebastian Cabot.
1498 Discovery of South America by Columbus.
1499 The Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany acknowledges the independence of Switzerland.

SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

A. D.
1501 Discovery of Central America by Columbus.
1504 Ferdinand of Spain obtains possession of Naples.
1505 Death of Ivan the Great, Grand Duke of Moscow.
1506 Death of Christopher Columbus at Valladolid, in Spain.
1507 The city of Ormuz, in Persia, conquered by Albuquerque.
1508 League of Cambray against Venice.
1509 Death of Henry VII. of England and accession of Henry VIII.
1510 Albuquerque conquers Goa, which becomes the capital of Portuguese Asia.
1512 John Ponce de Leon discovers Florida.
" Conquest of Navarre by Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain.
1513 Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean.
" John de Medici becomes Pope with the title of Leo X.
" Battle of the Spurs, France,
" Battle of Flodden Field, England, } September 10th.
1515 Death of Louis XII. of France and accession of Francis I.
" Battle of Marignano, or Battle of the Giants, Italy.
1517 Commencement of the Religious Reformation by Martin Luther.
" Conquest of Egypt by the Turks.
" Discovery of Mexico by Cordova.
1519 Death of the Emperor Maximilian I. and accession of Charles V.
1520 Luther excommunicated by the Pope and his writings condemned.
" Luther burns the papal bull of condemnation.
" Luther appears before the Diet of Worms.
" Commencement of the first war between Charles V. and Francis I.

1520 The Field of the Cloth of Gold.
" Massacre of Stockholm.
" Solyman the Magnificent becomes Sultan of Turkey.
" Ferdinand Magellan's circumnavigation of the globe.
1521 Conquest of Mexico by the Spaniards under Fernando Cortez.
" Henry VIII. of England writes a volume against the Reformation.
1523 Death of the Chevalier Bayard.
" Gustavus Vasa liberates Sweden from the Danish yoke.
1524 John Verrazzani explores the Atlantic coast of North America.
1525 Battle of Pavia,—Francis I. defeated and made prisoner.
" Establishment of the Mogul Empire in India by Baber.
1526 Peace of Madrid and release of Francis I.
" Battle of Mohacz and death of Louis II. of Hungary.
" Discovery of the La Plata river by Sebastian Cabot.
1527 The Holy League formed against Charles V.
" Second war between Charles V. and Francis I.
" Rome taken and pillaged by the Germans and Spaniards.
1528 Andria Doria frees Genoa from French supremacy.
1529 Ladies' Peace of Cambray between Charles V. and Francis I.
" Siege of Vienna by Sultan Solyman the Magnificent.
" The Protestation of the German Reformers at the Diet of Spire.
" Discovery of Peru by Francisco Pizarro.
1530 Diet of Augsburg,—The Augsburg Confession.
" The League of Schmalkald formed by the German Protestants.
" Religious war in Switzerland,—Battle of Kappel and death of Zwingli.
" Death of Cardinal Wolsey, November 29th.
1532 Conquest of Peru by the Spaniards under Francisco Pizarro.
1533 Henry VIII. divorces Catharine of Aragon and marries Anne Boleyn.
" Accession of Ivan the Terrible, Czar of Russia.
1534 Henry VIII. created Head of the Church in England.
" James Cartier discovers the St. Lawrence river.
1535 Cartier's second voyage up the St. Lawrence.
" First expedition of Charles V. to Africa.
1536 Henry VIII. causes Anne Boleyn to be beheaded, and marries Jane Seymour.
" Third war between Charles V. and Francis I.
1538 The Ten Years' Truce of Nice between Charles V. and Francis I.
1540 The Order of Jesuits founded by Ignatius Loyola.
1541 Discovery of the Mississippi river by Ferdinand De Soto.
" Second African expedition of Charles V.
1542 Fourth war between Charles V. and Francis I.
" War between England and Scotland,—Battle of Solway Moss.
1543 Bombardment of Nice by the French and Turkish fleets.

1544 Battle of Cerisoles.
" Peace of Crespy between Charles V. and Francis I.
1545 Opening of the Council of Trent.
1546 Death of Dr. Martin Luther, February 18th.
1547 Beginning of the religious war in Germany.
" Death of Henry VIII. of England and accession of Edward VI.
" Death of Francis I. of France and accession of Henry II.
" English invasion of Scotland.—Battle of Pinkie.
1552 Duke Maurice of Saxony makes war on the Emperor Charles V.
" Henry II. of France seizes the fortresses in Lorraine.
" Religious Peace of Passau.
1553 Death of Edward VI. of England and accession of Mary.
1554 Unsuccessful siege of Metz by the Emperor Charles V.
" Religious Peace of Augsburg.
1556 Abdication and retirement of the Emperor Charles V.
" Philip II., King of Spain, and Ferdinand I., Emperor of Germany.
1557 War of England and Spain against France.
" Battle of St. Quentin,—the French defeat the English and Spaniards.
1558 The French recover Calais from the English.
" Death of Queen Mary of England and accession of Elizabeth.
" Death of Charles V.
1559 Peace of Cateau-Cambresis between France and Spain.
" Death of Henry II. of France and accession of Francis II.
1560 Death of Francis II. of France and accession of Charles IX.
1562 The first religious war in France.
1563 Peace of Amboise between the French Catholics and Huguenots.
" Hungary comes under the House of Hapsburg.
1564 Death of the Emperor Ferdinand I. and accession of Maximilian II.
1565 The Catholic nobles in the Netherlands petition for toleration.
" Mary, Queen of Scots, marries Lord Darnley.
1566 Murder of Mary's favorite, David Rizzio.
" Death of Sultan Solyman the Magnificent of Turkey.
1567 The second religious war in France.
" Philip II. appoints the Duke of Alva Governor of the Netherlands.
" Murder of Lord Darnley, the husband of Mary, Queen of Scots.
" Mary's marriage with the Earl of Bothwell.
1568 The Peace of St. Germain closes the second religious war in France.
" Queen Mary of Scots flees to England, where she is kept a prisoner.
1571 Battle of Lepanto,—the Turkish navy annihilated.
1572 Massacre of St. Bartholomew.
" The revolted States of the Netherlands choose William of Orange for their Stadtholder.
1574 Death of King Charles IX. of France and accession of Henry III.

1576 The Pacification of Ghent.
" Death of the Emperor Maximilian II. of Germany and accession of Rudolf II.
1579 The Union of Utrecht.
1580 Portugal united with Spain.
1581 Assassination of William of Orange, Stadtholder of Holland.
1587 Execution of Mary, Queen of Scots, by order of Elizabeth.
1588 The Spanish Armada sent against England.—Destroyed by storms.
" Rebellion in Paris against King Henry III.
" Death of the Czar Ivan the Terrible of Russia.
1589 Henry III. besieges Paris.
" Assassination of Henry III. and accession of Henry IV.
1590 Siege of Paris by King Henry IV.
1593 Henry IV. becomes a Catholic and thus brings about a peace.
1598 Edict of Nantes issued by Henry IV., tolerating Protestantism.
" Death of Philip II. of Spain and accession of Philip III.
" The Earl of Tyrone heads a Catholic rebellion in Ireland.
1600 The English East-India Company chartered by Queen Elizabeth.

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

A. D.
1601 Execution of the Earl of Essex, Queen Elizabeth's favorite.
1602 Bartholomew Gosnold explores the New England coast.
1603 Death of Queen Elizabeth of England and accession of James I.
" Martin Pring explores the New England coast.
1605 The French colony of Acadia (now Nova Scotia) founded by De Monts.
" The Gunpowder Plot in London.
1606 Martin Pring's second visit to the New England coast.
1607 The first permanent English settlement in America at Jamestown.
1608 Quebec, in Canada, founded by Samuel Champlain.
1609 Samuel Champlain discovers Lake Champlain.
" Henry Hudson discovers and explores the Hudson river.
" Holland becomes independent of Spain.
1610 Assassination of Henry IV. of France and accession of Louis XIII.
" Expulsion of 600,000 Moors from Spain.
" The Starving Time in Virginia.
1612 Death of the Emperor Rudolf II. and accession of Matthias.
" Capture of Moscow by the Poles.
1613 Michael Romanoff becomes Czar of Russia.
1614 Captain John Smith explores and names New England.
1618 Execution of Sir Walter Raleigh.
" Beginning of the Thirty Years' War by the Bohemian revolt.
1619 Death of the Emperor Matthias and accession of Ferdinand II.

1619 The first legislative assembly in America met at Jamestown, June 28.
" The Dutch colony of Batavia, in Java, founded.
1620 Slavery introduced into Virginia.
" The Puritan settlement of Plymouth, in New England, December 21.
1621 The Virginia House of Burgesses established.
" Death of Philip III. of Spain and accession of Philip IV.
1622 Ormuz wrested from the Portuguese by Shah Abbas of Persia.
" The first Indian war and massacre in Virginia.
1623 The Dutch colony of New Netherland established.
1624 Cardinal Richelieu becomes Prime-Minister of France.
" King James I. of England makes Virginia a royal Province.
1625 Death of James I. of England and accession of Charles I.
" Frederic, King of Bohemia, defeated by the Emperor Ferdinand II.
1625 King Christian IV. of Denmark aids the German Protestants.
1626 Defeat of Christian IV. at Lutter by Tilly, the imperial general.
1628 Validity of the Petition of Right acknowledged by Charles I.
" Richelieu humbles the Huguenots by the capture of La Rochelle.
" Salem, Massachusetts, founded by John Endicott.
1629 Peace of Lubec between the King of Denmark and the Emperor of Germany.
" The Edict of Restitution published by the Emperor Ferdinand II.
" Charles I. of England dissolves his Parliament, which is not again convened for eleven years.
1630 Boston, Massachusetts, founded by John Winthrop.
" King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden aids the German Protestants.
1631 Magdeburg taken and destroyed by Tilly.
" Battle of Breitenfeld and Leipsic,—Tilly defeated by Gustavus.
1632 Battle of Lutzen,—victory and death of Gustavus Adolphus.
1633 Alliance of Heilbron between the Swedes and the Germans.
1634 Assassination of Wallenstein by order of the Emperor Ferdinand II.
" Battle of Nordlingen.
" Settlement of Maryland by English Roman Catholics.
1635 Clayborne's first rebellion in Maryland.
" Peace of Prague between the German Princes and the Emperor.
" Roger Williams banished from Massachusetts.
1636 Founding of Providence, Rhode Island, by Roger Williams.
" Settlement of Hartford, Connecticut, by Rev. Thomas Hooker.
1637 Extermination of the Pequod Indians by the Connecticut settlers.
" Death of the Emperor Ferdinand II. and accession of Ferdinand III.
" Presbyterian rebellion in Scotland.
1637 Founding of Harvard College at Cambridge, Massachusetts.
1638 Founding of New Haven, Connecticut, by Rev. John Davenport.
" Settlement of Newport, Rhode Island, by William Coddington.

1638 Settlement of New Sweden (now Delaware).
" Sultan Amurah IV. of Turkey causes a massacre of the inhabitants of Bagdad.
1640 Portugal recovers her independence.
" Frederic William, the Great Elector of Brandenburg, begins his reign.
1641 Catholic rebellion in Ireland.
1642 Commencement of the civil war in England between the Cavaliers and the Roundheads.
" Battle of Edge Hill, England, October 3d.
" Death of Cardinal Richelieu, December.
1643 Death of Louis XIII. of France and accession of Louis XIV.
" Battle of Rocroi,—the Spaniards defeated by the French.
" Battle of Newbury, England.
" Union of the New England colonies.
1644 Battle of Marston Moor,—Lord Fairfax defeats the royalists, July 9th.
" Second Indian war in Virginia.
" Union of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations.
" The Manchu-Tartar dynasty ascends the throne of China.
1645 Clayborne's second rebellion in Maryland.
" Battle of Naseby,—Charles I. overthrow, June 14th.
1648 Peace of Westphalia terminates the Thirty Years' War.
" The Civil Wars of the Fronde commence in France.
" Colonel Pride's Purge,—81 Presbyterians expelled from Parliament.
1649 Execution of King Charles I. of England, January 30th.
" The Commonwealth of England established.
" The Toleration Act passed by the Maryland Assembly.
1650 Battle of Dunbar,—the Scots defeated by Cromwell, September 3d.
1651 Battle of Worcester,—the English royalists defeated by Cromwell, September 3rd.
" The Navigation Act passed by the English Parliament.
1652 Commencement of a naval war between England and Holland.
1653 Cromwell dissolves the Long Parliament, April.
" Praise-God Barebone's Parliament, April to December.
" Oliver Cromwell created Lord Protector of England, December.
1654 Abdication of Queen Christina of Sweden.
" Peace between England and Holland.
1655 War between England and Spain.
" Conquest of the island of Jamaica by the English Admiral Penn.
" Civil war in Maryland between the Catholics and Protestants.
" Conquest of New Sweden by Governor Stuyvesant of New Netherland.
1656 Persecution of Quakers in Boston, Massachusetts.
" Three days' battle of Warsaw,—the Swedes defeat the Poles.
1657 Death of the Emperor Ferdinand III. and accession of Leopold I.

1658 Death of Oliver Cromwell, September 3rd.
" Richard Cromwell becomes Lord Protector, but soon resigns.
1659 Aurungzebe ascends the Mogul throne in India.
" The Treaty of the Pyrenees between France and Spain.
1660 Restoration of Monarchy in England,—Charles II., King, May 29th.
1661 Death of Cardinal Mazarin, Prime-Minister of France.
1663 Naval war between England and Holland.
" Charter granted to Rhode Island by King Charles II. of England.
" Settlement of North Carolina by emigrants from Virginia.
1664 Conquest of New Netherland by the English.
" Settlement of Elizabethtown, New Jersey, by English Puritans.
1665 Connecticut and New Haven united under one charter granted by Charles II.
" Great plague in London.
1666 Great fire in London.
1667 Peace of Breda between England and Holland.
" Louis XIV. of France makes conquests in the Spanish Netherlands.
1668 Triple Alliance of England, Holland, and Sweden against France.
" Peace of Aix la Chapelle,—Louis XIV. restores his conquests.
" Peace between Spain and Portugal after 26 years of war.
1669 Conquest of Candia (Crete) by the Turks.
1670 Settlement of South Carolina by English emigrants.
1671 Emmerik Tokeli's insurrection in Hungary.
1672 Louis XIV, invades Holland with a powerful army.
1673 Louis Joliet and James Marquette explore the Mississippi river.
" John Sobieski, King of Poland, defeats 200,000 Turks at Kotzim.
" New York taken by a Dutch fleet.
1674 New York restored to the English.
" Spain and Germany join Holland in the war against France.
1675 Battle of Fehrbellin,—the Swedes defeated by the Great Elector.
" Beginning of King Philip's War in New England, July 4th.
1676 Subjugation of the New England Indians and death of King Philip.
" Bacon's Rebellion in Virginia.
1678 Peace of Nimeguen between France and the Allies.
" The Habeas Corpus Act passed by the English Parliament.
1679 Eleven days' battle at Tangier between the English and the Moors.
1680 Charleston, South Carolina, founded.
1681 Louis XIV. wrests the free city of Strassburg from the German Empire.
1682 Philadelphia and Pennsylvania founded by William Penn.
" Robert de La Salle explores the Mississippi river.
1683 John Sobieski, King of Poland, drives the Turks from Vienna.
" Rye House Plot in England.—Execution of Russell and Sidney.
" Bombardment of Algiers by a French fleet.

1684 Genoa bombarded by the French navy.
1685 Death of Charles II. of England and accession of James II.
" Revocation of the Edict of Nantes and persecution of the Huguenots.
1686 League of Augsburg,—Germany, Spain, Holland, and Sweden against France.
1687 The Connecticut charter concealed from Sir Edmund Andros.
1688 Death of Frederic William, the Great Elector of Brandenburg.
" Desolation of the Palatinate by the French.
" Revolution in England and flight of James II.
1689 The Bill of Rights passed by the English Parliament.
" William and Mary created joint sovereigns of England.
" Sir Edmund Andros deposed and imprisoned in Boston.
" England joins the Allies in the war against Louis XIV.
" Rebellion of the Scotch Highlanders against William and Mary.
" Battle of Killiecrankie and death of Lord Dundee.
" Catholic rebellion in Ireland in favor of James II.
" Peter the Great becomes sole Czar of Russia.
" Dover, New Hampshire, burned by the French and Indians.
1690 Schenectady, New York, destroyed by the French and Indians.
" Battle of the Boyne, Ireland,—James II. defeated by William III.
1691 Battle of Aughrim, Ireland, and death of the Irish General St. Ruth.
" Massacre of Glencoe, Scotland.
" Acadia seized and plundered by Sir William Phipps.
1692 Massachusetts made a royal province.
" Salem Witchcraft.
" Naval battle off Cape La Hogue.—Beginning of England's naval superiority.
" Battle of Neerwinden,—William III. defeated by the French.
1695 War of Germany, Russia, Poland and Venice against Turkey.
1696 Death of John Sobieski, King of Poland.
1697 Peace of Ryswick between France and the Allies.
" Battle of Zenta,—Prince Eugene defeats the Turks.
" Charles XII. ascends the throne of Sweden.
" Governor Fletcher of New York defied at Hartford by Captain Wadsworth.
1699 Peace of Carlowitz between Turkey and the Allies.
" The English erect Fort William at Calcutta, Hindoostan.
1700 Death of Charles II. of Spain and accession of Philip of Anjou.
" Charles XII. of Sweden compels the King of Denmark to make peace.
" Battle of Narva,—Charles XII. defeats the Czar Peter the Great.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

A. D.

1701 Founding of the Kingdom of Prussia.
" Founding of Yale College in Connecticut.
1702 Founding of Mobile in the present Alabama.
" Death of William III. of England and accession of Queen Anne.
" Commencement of the War of the Spanish Succession.
" Charles XII. of Sweden enters Warsaw in triumph.
" Deerfield, Massachusetts, burned by the French and Indians.
1703 St. Petersburg founded by the Czar Peter the Great.
" Charles XII. of Sweden deposes Augustus II. of Poland.
" Protestant insurrection in France.
" Protestant insurrection in Hungary.
1704 Stanislaus Leczinski elected King of Poland.
" Capture of Gibraltar by Sir George Rooke.
" Battle of Blenheim, August 13th.
1705 Death of the Emperor Leopold I. and accession of Joseph I.
1706 Battle of Ramillies, May 23d.
" Battle of Turin, September 6th.
" Peace of Altranstadt between Charles XII. and the Elector of Saxony.
" A Franco-Spanish fleet attacks Charleston, South Carolina.
1707 Parliamentary Union of England and Scotland.
" Battle of Almanza, Spain, April 25th.
" Death of Aurungzebe, the great Mogul Emperor of India.
1708 Battle of Oudenarde, July 11th.
" Charles XII. of Sweden invades Russia.
1709 Battle of Pultowa, July 8th.
" Battle of Malplaquet, September 11th.
1710 The French colony of Acadia conquered by the English.
" Charles XII. of Sweden seeks refuge in Turkey.
1711 Unfortunate expedition of Sir Hovenden Walker against Canada.
" The Tuscarora Indians make war on the North Carolina settlers.
" Death of the Emperor Joseph II. and accession of Charles VI.
" The Hungarian insurrection of Count Ragotzky suppressed.
1713 Peace of Utrecht.
1714 Peace of Rastadt.
" Death of Queen Anne of England and accession of George I.
1715 The Yamasee Indians make war on the South Carolinians.
" Charles XII. returns to Sweden.
" Death of Louis XIV. of France and accession of Louis XV.
" Rebellion in Scotland against the House of Brunswick.
1716 Battle of Sheriff Muir, Scotland.
" Austria joins Venice in a war against the Ottoman Porte.

1716 Charles XII. of Sweden invades Norway.
" Prince Eugene defeats the Turks near Peterwardein.
1717 Prince Eugene annihilates an army of 200,000 Turks at Belgrade.
1718 War of the Quadruple Alliance against Spain.
" Peace of Passarovitz between Austria and Turkey.
" Siege of Frederikshall and death of Charles XII. of Sweden.
" Yale College removed from Saybrook to New Haven.
" Founding of New Orleans, Louisiana.
1721 Peace of Nystadt between Russia and Sweden.
1722 Persia overrun and subdued by the Afghans.
1725 Death of Peter the Great of Russia and accession of Catharine I.
1727 Death of Catharine I. of Russia and accession of Peter II.
" Death of George I. of England and accession of George II.
" Siege of Gibraltar by the Spaniards.
" Conquest of Thibet by the Chinese.
1729 North and South Carolina become separate royal provinces.
" The Natchez Indians massacre the French settlers at Fort Rosalie.
1730 The Empress Anna ascends the throne of Russia.
1732 Birth of George Washington, February 22d.
1733 Savannah, Georgia, founded by James Edward Oglethorpe.
" War of the Polish Succession begins.
1734 Battle of Parma, Italy, between the Sardinians and Austrians.
1735 Peace between France and Germany.
1736 Kouli Khan ascends the throne in Persia with the title of Nadir Shah.
1737 Austria joins Russia in a war against the Ottoman Porte.
1738 Battle of Krotzky, July 21st,—the Turks defeat the Austrians.
" France agrees to the Pragmatic Sanction.
1739 Peace of Belgrade between Austria and Turkey.
" Nadir Shah of Persia invades India and causes 100,000 of the inhabitants of Delhi to be massacred.
" Colonial and maritime war between England and Spain.
" Porto Bello, South America, taken by Admiral Vernon's fleet.
1740 Admiral Vernon and General Wentworth repulsed in an attack upon Carthagena, South America.
" Death of the Emperor Charles VI. of Germany.
" Frederic the Great becomes King of Prussia.
" Coalition against Maria Theresa and War of the Austrian Succession.
" Frederic the Great begins the First Silesian War.
1741 Battle of Molvitz,—defeat of the Austrians by the Prussians.
" A French army under Marshal Belleisle marches into Bohemia.
" Charles VII. elected Emperor of Germany.
" Accession of the Empress Elizabeth of Russia.
" War between Sweden and Russia.

1741 Supposed Negro Plot in New York City.
1742 Peace of Breslau between Austria and Prussia.
" Marshal Belleisle's retreat through Germany to the Rhine.
1743 England's alliance with Maria Theresa.
" Battle of Dettingen,—George II. of England defeats the French.
" Peace of Abo between Sweden and Russia.
1744 The Second Silesian War and Frederic's capture of Prague.
1745 Death of Charles VII. of Germany and election of Francis I.
" Battle of Hohenfriedberg.
" Battle of Sorr.
" Battle of Kesselsdorf,
" Peace of Dresden between Frederic and Maria Theresa.
" Battle of Fontenoy.
" Capture of Louisburg, Acadia, by Admiral Warren and General Pepperell.
" Scotch Rebellion.
" Battle of Preston Pans, Scotland.
1746 Battle of Falkirk, Scotland.
" Battle of Culloden Moor, Scotland.
1747 Assassination of Nadir Shah of Persia.
1748 Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
1749 The Ohio Company obtains a land-grant from King George II.
1753 Washington's mission to the French.
1754 Washington's expedition against Fort Du Quesne.
" Battle of the Great Meadows.
" Washington's capitulation at Fort Necessity, July 4th.
" Colonial Congress at Albany, New York.
1755 Capture of French forts in Acadia by Colonel Monckton, June.
" Acadia plundered and desolated by the English, June.
" Battle of the Monongahela and death of Braddock, July 9th.
" Battle of Lake George,—Colonel Wil'iams defeated by Dieskau.
" Great earthquake at Lisbon, Portugal, destroys 30,000 houses.
1756 Coalition against Frederic the Great and beginning of the Seven Years' War.
" Sudden invasion of Saxony by Frederic the Great.
" Battle of Lowositz, Bohemia.
" Surrender of the Saxon army.
" The French wrest the island of Minorca from the English.
" The Marquis de Montcalm captures the English garrison at Oswego.
" Battle of Kittanning,—Colonel John Armstrong defeats the Indians.
" Surajah Dowlah confines 146 Englishmen in the Black Hole of Calcutta.
1757 Battle of Prague, Bohemia, May 6th.
" Battle of Ko'in, Bohemia, June 18th.
" Battle of Plassey, India, June 23rd,—Clive defeats Surajah Dowlah.

1757 Battle of Rosbach, Saxony, November 5th.
" Battle of Leuthen, Silesia, December 5th.
" Capture of Fort William Henry by Montcalm.
" William Pitt the Elder becomes Prime Minister of England.
1758 Battle of Zorndorf, Brandenburg, August 24th.
" Battle of Hochkirchen, Saxony, October 14th.
" Capture of Louisburg, Acadia, by Generals Amherst and Wolfe.
" Capture of Fort Frontenac, Canada, by Colonel Bradstreet.
" Capture of Fort Du Quesne by General John Forbes.
1759 Battle of Minden, Havover, August 1st.
" Battle of Kunersdorf, Silesia, August 14th.
" Capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point by General Amherst.
" Capture of Fort Niagara by General William Johnson.
" Defeat of the French at Quebec and death of Wolfe and Montcalm, September 13th.
" Quebec surrendered to General Murray, September 18th.
" The Jesuits expelled from Paraguay.
1760 Battle of Liegnitz, August 13th.
" Battle of Torgou, November 3d.
" Battle of Sillery, Canada, April 28th.
" Surrender of Montreal to General Murray, September 8th.
" Death of George II. of England and accession of George III.
1761 Battle of Panniput, India, January 7th.
" Family Compact between France and Spain.
" Defeat of the Cherokee Indians in Georgia by Colonel Grant.
" Mason and Dixon's Line established.
" Writs of Assistance tried in the Anglo-American colonies.
1762 Capture of Havana, Cuba, by the British navy.
" Death of the Empress Elizabeth of Russia.
" Murder of the Czar Peter III. of Russia and accession of Catharine II.
1763 Peace of Paris between England and France, February 10th.
" Peace of Hubertsburg between Austria and Prussia.
" Pontiac's War against the English in North America.
1764 Death of Augustus III. of Poland and election of Stanislaus Poniatowski.
1765 The Stamp Act passed by the British Parliament.
" The Stamp Act Congress in New York City, October.
" Death of the Emperor Francis I. and election of Joseph II.
1766 Repeal of the Stamp Act, March 6th.
" Parliament levies duties on articles imported into America.
1767 Civil war in Poland.
" Hyder Ali, Sultan of Mysore, begins a war against the English.
1768 War between Russia and Turkey.
" British troops under General Gage sent to Boston.

1769 Acquisition of Corsica by the French.
1770 Bender stormed and taken by the Russians.
" The Boston Riot and Massacre, March 5th.
1771 Defeat of the Regulators in North Carolina, May 16th.
" Gustavus III. ascends the throne of Sweden.
" Gustavus III. breaks the power of the Swedish aristocracy.
1772 Destruction of the Gaspé.
" First Partition of Poland.
1773 Committees of Correspondence in the Anglo-American colonies.
" Tea-ships sent to America.
" Destruction of tea in Boston harbor, December 16th.
1774 Pugatscheff's rebellion in Russia.
" Passage of the Boston Port Bill by the British Parliament.
" The port of Boston closed against all commerce, June 1st.
" The First Continental Congress assembles in Philadelphia, Sept. 5th.
" Peace of Kudschuk Kainardji between Russia and Turkey.
" Death of Louis XV. of France and accession of Louis XVI.
1775 Pugatscheff, the Don Cossack, beheaded in Moscow.
" American Revolution begins by the skirmishes at Lexington and Concord, April 19th.
" The Second Continental Congress assembles at Philadelphia, May 10th.
" Capture of Ticonderoga by Colonel Ethan Allen, May 10th.
" Capture of Crown Point by Colonel Seth Warner, May 12th.
" Mecklenberg Declaration of Independence, May 20th.
" Washington chosen Commander-in-Chief, June 15th.
" Battle of Bunker's Hill, June 17th.
" American invasion of Canada, September.
" Defeat of Governor Dunmore in Virginia.
" Capture of Montreal by General Montgomery, November 13th.
" Defeat of the Americans at Quebec and death of Montgomery, December 31st.
1776 Lord Dunmore burns Norfolk, Virginia, January 1st.
" Washington begins the siege of Boston, March 2d.
" Evacuation of Boston by General Howe, March 17th.
" The British repulsed at Charleston, South Carolina, June 28th.
" Declaration of American Independence, July 4th.
" Battle of Long Island, August 27th.
" Battle of White Plains, New York, October 28th.
" Capture of Fort Washington by the British, November 16th.
" Washington's retreat across New Jersey, December.
" Battle of Trenton, New Jersey,—1,000 Hessians captured, December 26th.
1777 Battle of Princeton, New Jersey, January 3d.

1777 Skirmish at Ridgefield, Connecticut, April 27th.
" Siege of Fort Schuyler, New York, August.
" Battle of Oriskany, New York, August 6th.
" Battle of Bennington, Vermont, August 16th.
" Battle of Brandywine, Pennsylvania, September 11th.
" Battle of Bemis's Heights, New York, September 19th.
" Massacre of Paoli, Pennsylvania, September 20th.
" Battle of Germantown, Pennsylvania, October 4th.
" Battle of Saratoga, New York, October 7th.
" Surrender of Burgoyne, October 17th.
" Adoption of the Articles of Confereration, November.
" Washington encamps at Valley Forge, December.
1778 Franco-American Alliance.—War between England and France.
" Death of the elder William Pitt.
" Battle of Monmouth, New Jersey, June 28th.
" Massacre of Wyoming, Pennsylvania, July 3d, 4th, and 5th.
" Battle of Quaker Hill, Rhode Island, August 29th.
" Massacre of Cherry Valley, New York, November 11th.
" The British under Colonel Campbell invade Georgia and capture Savannah, December 29th.
" War of the Bavarian Succession.
" Discovery of the Sandwich Islands by Captain Cook.
1779 Capture of Sunbury, Georgia, by the British, January 9th.
" Battle of Kettle Creek, Georgia, February 14th.
" Battle of Brier Creek, Georgia, March 3d.
" Battle of Stono Ferry, South Carolina, June 20th.
" Spain declares war against England, June.
" Siege of Gibraltar commenced by the Spaniards.
" Capture of Stony Point by General Anthony Wayne, July 16th.
" Capture of Paulus Hook by Major Henry Lee, July 19th.
" General Sullivan's chastisement of the Indians in New York, August.
" John Paul Jones's great naval victory off Flamborough Head, Sept. 23d.
" Siege of Savannah begun by the French and Americans, Sept. 23d.
" Unsuccessful assault on the British at Savannah, October 9th.
1780 Sir Henry Clinton lays siege to Charleston, South Carolina, April 9th.
" Surrender of Charleston to the British, May 12th.
" The Gordon or "No Popery" Riots in London, June.
" Skirmish at Springfield, New Jersey, June 23d.
" Battle of Sanders' Creek, South Carolina, August 16th.
" Battle of Fishing Creek, South Carolina, August 18th.
" Arnold's treason discovered, September 22d.
" Execution of Major André, October 2d.
" Battle of King's Mountain, South Carolina, October 7th.

1780 Death of the Empress Maria Theresa of Austria.
" Hyder Ali defeated in India by Sir Eyre Coote.
" Beginning of Tupac Amaru's insurrection in Peru.
" Armed Neutrality against England.
" England declares war against Holland, December 20th.
1781 Mutiny of Pennsylvania troops at Morristown, New Jersey, Jan. 1st.
" Battle of the Cowpens, South Carolina, January 17th.
" Mutiny of New Jersey troops at Pompton, New Jersey, January 18th.
" Battle of Guilford Court House, North Carolina, March 15th.
" Battle of Hobkirk's Hill, South Carolina, April 25th.
" Siege of Fort Ninety-Six, South Carolina, by General Greene, May.
" Capture of Augusta, Georgia, by the Americans, June 5th.
" Battle between the English and Dutch fleets on the Dogger Bank, June.
" Massacre of Fort Griswold, Connecticut, September 6th.
" Battle of Eutaw Springs, South Carolina, September 8th.
" Siege of Yorktown commenced by Washington, September 28th.
" Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, October 19th.
1782 End of Lord North's Administration, March.
" The British House of Commons resolves to end the American war, March 4th.
" Admiral Rodney defeats Count de Grasse in the West Indies, April 12th.
" Grand attack of the French and Spaniards on Gibraltar, Sept. 13th.
" Preliminary Peace of Paris between England and the United States, November 30th.
" The younger William Pitt becomes Prime Minister of England.
" Migration of the Kalmuck Tartars from Russia.
" Tupac Amaru conquered and put to a cruel death.
" Death of Hyder Ali, Sultan of Mysore, and accession of Tippoo Saib.
1783 Preliminary Peace of Paris between England and France, Jan. 20th.
" Definitive Peace of Paris.—American independence acknowledged, September 3d.
" Evacuation of New York City by the British army, November 25th.
" Washington resigns his commission, December 4th.
" Conquest of the Crimea by the Russians under Potemkin.
" Great earthquake at Messana, Italy.
1784 Democratic insurrection in Holland.
1786 Shay's insurrection in Massachusetts.
" Death of Frederic the Great at Potsdam, August 17th.
1787 An Assembly of Notables convened in France, February.
" Assembling of the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia, May.
" The Constitution of the United States framed, September.
" War of Austria and Russia against Turkey.
" King Frederic William II. of Prussia restores order in Holland.

1787 Rebellions in the Austrian Netherlands and Hungary.
" Impeachment of Warren Hastings by the House of Commons.
1788 Gustavus III. of Sweden makes war on Russia.
" Ratification and adoption of the Constitution of the United States.
" General Washington elected President of the United States.
" Capture of Oczakow by the Russians under Potemkin, December 22d.
1789 The Constitution of the United States goes into operation, March 4th.
" Inauguration of President Washington, April 30th.
" Assembling of the States-General at Versailles, May 5th.
" The States-General declares itself a National Assembly, June 17th.
" The French Revolution begun by the storming of the Bastile, July 14th.
" The Paris mob forces Louis XVI. to remove from Versailles to Paris, October 5th.
" Admission of North Carolina into the American Union, Nov. 29th.
1790 Death of Joseph II. of Germany and accession of Leopold II., February.
" Rhode Island admitted into the American Union, May 29th.
" The Ceremony of Federation in Paris, June 17th.
" Peace between Gustavus III. of Sweden and Catharine II. of Russia.
" Tippoo Saib renews the war against the English East India Company.
" General Harmer defeated by the Indians in Ohio, November 4th.
" Ismail stormed and taken by the Russians under Suwarrow, December 17th.
1791 Vermont admitted as a State of the American Union, February 18th.
" Death of Count Mirabeau, April 2d.
" A new monarchical constitution adopted in Poland, May 3d.
" Siege and capture of Bangalore, India, by Lord Cornwallis.
" Unsuccessful attempt of Louis XVI. to escape from France, June.
" Peace between Austria and Turkey.
" The French Legislative Assembly convenes in Paris, October 1st.
" General St. Clair defeated by the Indians in Ohio, November 4th.
1792 Peace of Jassy between Russia and Turkey, January.
" Death of Leopold II. of Germany and accession of Francis II.
" Lord Cornwallis defeats Tippoo Saib at Seringapatam, India.
" Assassination of King Gustavus III. of Sweden, March 29th.
" France declares war against Austria and Prussia, April 20th.
" Poland invaded by Russian troops, May.
" Kentucky admitted into the American Union, June 1st.
" Insurrection in Paris, June 20th.
" Defeat of Kosciuszko at Dubienka by the Russians, July 17th.
" Austro-Prussian invasion of France, July.
" Insurrection and massacre in Paris, August 10th.
" Flight of General Lafayette to the Austrians.
" Massacre of the Prisons in Paris, September 2d–5th.
" Battle of Valmy, France, September 20th.

1792 The French National Convention assembles in Paris and declares France a Republic, September 22d.
" Battle of Jemappes, Belgium, November 6th.
1793 Execution of King Louis XVI. of France, January 27th.
" France declares war against England, Spain, and Holland, February.
" Battle of Neerwinden, Belgium, March 18th.
" Dumouriez seeks refuge among the Austrians, March.
" Second Partition of Poland, April.
" Insurrection of the Jacobins in Paris, May 31st and June 1st.
" The Reign of Terror in France.
" The insurrection of La Vendée.
" Insurrection of Lyons.
" Insurrection of Marseilles.
" Insurrection of Toulon.
" Siege and reduction of Toulon,—Appearance of Napoleon Bonaparte.
" Insurrections in Brittany and Normandy.
" Trial and execution of Marie Antoinette, October 16th.
" Execution of the Girondist leaders, October 31st.
" The French National Convention abolishes the Christian religion, November 10th.
1794 Execution of Danton and Camille Desmoulins, April.
" Rise of the Poles under Kosciuszko against the Russians, April.
" Execution of Robespierre, St. Just, Couthon, and Henriot, July 28th.
" General Wayne defeats the Indians in Ohio, August 20th.
" Defeat of Kosciuszko by the Russians at Macziewice, October 10th.
" Jay's Treaty between the United States and Great Britain.
" The Whisky Insurrection in Pennsylvania.
1795 Third Partition of Poland, January.
" Holland erected into the Batavian Republic, January.
" The French National Convention surrounded by a mob, March 31st, April 1st.
" Peace of Basle between France and Prussia, April 5th.
" The Insurrection of the 1st Prairial in Paris, May 20th.
" The Austrians take Heidelberg and Mannheim by storm, September.
" Insurrection of the Sections in Paris, October 3d–5th.
" Establishment of the Directory in France, October 27th.
1796 Battles of Montenotte and Mellessimo, Italy, April.
" Battle of Lodi, Italy, May 10th.
" Tennessee admitted into the American Union, June 1st.
" Death of Catharine II. of Russia and accession of Paul.
" Moreau's masterly retreat through the Black Forest, September.
" Spain declares war against England, October 2d.
" Battles of Arcola, Italy, November 15th, 16th, and 17th.

1797 John Adams inaugurated President of the United States, March 4th.
" Preliminary Treaty of Leoben between France and Austria, April 18th.
" The Venetian Republic subverted by Bonaparte.
" The Royalist deputies imprisoned and banished from France, Sept.
" Peace of Campo Formio between France and Austria, October 17th.
" The Cisalpine and Ligurian Republics established in Italy.
" A European Congress assembles at Rastadt, Baden, December.
1798 A new Roman Republic established, February.
" Switzerland converted into the Helvetic Republic.
" Rebellion in Ireland against British authority.
" Bonaparte invades Egypt, July 1st.
" Capture of Alexandria, Egypt, by Bonaparte, July 1st.
" Battle of the Pyramids, Egypt, July 21st.
" Battle of the Nile,—Lord Nelson defeats the French fleet, August 1st.
" Alien and Sedition Laws passed by the United States Congress.
" The Virginia and Kentucky State Rights Resolutions.
" Coalition of Austria, Russia, England, and Turkey against France.
1799 The Parthenopeian Republic established in Naples, January.
" Bonaparte's invasion of Syria, February.
" Siege of Acre, Syria, by Bonaparte, March and April.
" Battle of Mount Tabor, Syria, March.
" Fall of Seringapatam and death of Tippoo Saib, May 4th.
" Battles of Cassano and Trebia, Italy,—French defeats, June.
" The Parthenopeian Republic overthrown, June 13th.
" Battle of Aboukir, Egypt, July 25th.
" Battle of Novi, Italy,—Suwarrow defeats the French, August 5th.
" Battle of Zurich, Switzerland,—Russians defeated by the French, September 25th and 26th.
" Bonaparte overthrows the Directory in France, November 9th.
" Death of General Washington at Mount Vernon, December 14th.
1800 Napoleon created First Consul of the French Republic, January.
" Napoleon's passage over the Alps, May and June.
" Battle of Montebello, Italy, June 9th.
" Battle of Marengo, Italy, June 14th.
" Washington City becomes the Capital of the United States.
" Macdonald's passage over the Splugen, November.
" Battle of Hohenlinden, Bavaria, December 3d.
" Maritime League formed against Great Britain, December 16th.
" Attempted assassination of Bonaparte, December 24th.

NINETEENTH CENTURY.

A. D.

1801 Legislative Union of Great Britain and Ireland, January 1st.
" Peace of Luneville between France and Austria, February 9th.
" Battle of Copenhagen,—Lord Nelson defeats the Danes, March 2d.
" Inauguration of President Thomas Jefferson, March 4th.
" Battle of Canopus, Egypt, and death of Sir Ralph Abercrombie, March 21st.
" Assassination of the Czar Paul and accession of Alexander I., March 24th.
" War between the United States and Tripoli.
" War between Spain and Portugal.
1802 Peace of Badajoz between Spain and Portugal.
" Peace of Amiens between England and France, March 27th.
" Ohio becomes a State of the American Union.
" Bonaparte elected First Consul of France for life.
" Revolt of San Domingo against the French.
1803 Renewal of the war between England and France.
" French invasion and conquest of Hanover.
" Robert Emmett's insurrection in Dublin, Ireland.
" Purchase of Louisiana from France by the United States.
" War between Russia and Persia.
" War between the English and the Mahrattas of India.
" Battle of Assayé, India,—Sir Arthur Wellesley defeats the Mahrattas.
1804 Conspiracy against Bonaparte.
" Execution of the Duke d' Enghein, May 21st.
" War between Great Britain and Spain, December.
" Napoleon crowned " Emperor of the French," December 2d.
1805 Napoleon crowned " King of Northern Italy," May 26th.
" Mehemet Ali becomes Pasha of Egypt.
" Coalition of England, Austria, Russia, and Sweden against Napoleon.
" The Austrian general Mack surrenders Ulm to Napoleon, October 20th.
" Battle of Trafalgar,—victory and death of Lord Nelson, October 21st.
" Battle of Dirnstein, Austria, November 11th.
" Napoleon enters Vienna, the Austrian capital, November 13th.
" Battle of Austerlitz, Austria, December 2d.
" Peace of Pressburg between France and Austria, December 26th.
1806 End of the German Empire and formation of the Confederation of the Rhine.
" Joseph Bonaparte King of Naples and Louis King of Holland.
" Death of William Pitt the Younger and Charles James Fox.
" The English conquer the Cape of Good Hope from the Dutch.
" Capture of Buenos Ayres, South America, by Sir Home Popham.
" War breaks out between France and Prussia, August.

1806 Battle of Saalfeld,—Prince Louis of Prussia defeated and killed, October 10th.
" Battles of Jena and Auerstadt, Prussia, October 14th.
" Napoleon enters Berlin, the capital of Prussia, October 25th.
" Napoleon's Berlin Decree establishing the Continental System, November 21st.
" Battle of Pultusk, Poland,—the French repulsed, December 26th.
1807 Battle of Eylau, Prussia, February 8th.
" Dantzic, Prussia, surrendered to the French, May 24th.
" Battle of Hielsberg, Prussia, June 5th.
" Battle of Friedland, Prussia, June 14th.
" Attack of the Leopard on the Chesapeake, June 22d.
" Peace of Tilsit between France, Russia, and Prussia, July 7th.
" Jerome Bonaparte becomes King of Westphalia.
" War begun between Russia and Turkey.
" A British fleet under Admiral Duckworth repulsed at Constantinople.
" The English under General Fraser take Alexandria in Egypt.
" Buenos Ayres recovered from the English by its inhabitants.
" Robert Fulton's steam navigation experiments crowned with success.
" Bombardment of Copenhagen by the British navy, September 2d–5th.
" Aaron Burr's trial for treason and acquittal, November.
" War of Prussia, France, and Denmark against Sweden.
" The royal family of Portugal sails for Rio Janeiro, in Brazil, Nov. 27th.
" The French occupy Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, November 30th.
" Napoleon's Milan decree forbidding neutrals trading with England, December 17th.
1808 Intrigues of Bayonne,—Dethronement of the Bourbons in Spain.
" Joseph Bonaparte proclaimed King of Spain.
" Beginning of the Peninsular War.
" Dupont's capitulation of Baylen.
" Napoleon's meeting with the Czar Alexander I. at Erfurt, Prussia, July.
" The Portuguese resist the French and are aided by the English, August.
" Battle of Rolica, Portugal, August 19th.
" Battle of Vimiera, Portugal, August 21st.
" Convention of Cintra,—French evacuation of Portugal.
" Napoleon enters Madrid, the capital of Spain, December 4th.
1809 Battle of Corunna, Spain,—victory and death of Sir John Moore, January 16th.
" Surrender of Saragossa to the French after a long siege, February 20th.
" James Madison inaugurated President of the United States, March 4th.
" King Gustavus IV. of Sweden deposed by the Swedish Senate, March 13th.
" Sweden cedes Finland to Russia by the Peace of Frederikshamm.
" War breaks out between France and Austria, April.

1809 Battles of Abensberg and Eckmuhl, Bavaria, April 19th–22d.
" Napoleon enters Vienna, May 13th.
" Battles of Aspern and Esslingen, Austria, May 21st, 22d.
" Eugene Beauharnais defeats the Austrians at Raab, May.
" Revolt of the Tyrolese against the Bavarian Government.
" Unfortunate expedition of the English to the island of Walcheran.
" Pope Pius VII. imprisoned in France, July.
" Battle of Wagram, Austria, July 5th and 6th.
" Battle of Talavera, Spain, July 28th.
" Beginning of the Revolution in Colombia, August.
" Peace of Schoenbrunn between France and Austria, October 14th.
" Napoleon's divorce from Josephine.
1810 Napoleon's marriage with the Archduchess Maria Louisa of Austria, January.
" General Charles John Bernadotte elected Crown Prince of Sweden.
" Holland annexed to the French Empire.
" Beginning of the Revolution in Chili, July.
" Hidalgo begins the Revolution in Mexico, September 16th.
" Battle of Busaca, Spain, September 27th.
" Wellington's retreat to Torres Vedras, October and November.
1811 Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, causes a massacre of the Mamelukes.
" Attack of the Little Belt on the President, March 16th.
" Battle of Albuera, Spain, May 16th.
" Colombian Declaration of Independence, July 5th.
" Hidalgo, the Mexican insurgent chief, shot, July 27th.
" Battle of Tippecanoe, Indiana, November 7th.
1812 Earthquake at Caracas, South America.
" Louisiana admitted as a State of the American Union.
" Peace of Bucharest between Russia and Turkey.
" The United States declares war against England, June 19th.
" Napoleon declares war against Russia, June 22d.
" Napoleon crosses the Niemen and invades Russia, June 24th.
" Battle of Salamanca, Spain, July 22d.
" Hull's surrender of Detroit, Michigan, August 16th.
" Battle of Smolensko, Russia, August 17th.
" Battle of Borodino, Russia, September 7th.
" Napoleon enters Moscow, September 15th.
" Conflagration of Moscow, September 16th–19th.
" Battle of Queenstown, Canada, October 13th.
" Napoleon begins his retreat from Moscow, October 19th.
" Battles of Krasnoi, Russia, November 16th, 17th, and 18th.
" Terrible passage of the Beresina, December.
1813 Massacre of Frenchtown, Michigan, January 22d.

1813 Prussia joins Russia and Sweden in the war against Napoleon, Feb. 3d.
" Capture of York, or Toronto, Canada, by the Americans, April 27th.
" Battle of Lutzen, Germany, May 2d.
" First siege of Fort Meigs, Ohio, May 5th–9th.
" Battle of Bautzen, Germany, May 20th.
" Battle of Vittoria, Spain, June 21st.
" European Congress at Prague, Bohemia, July 4th.
" Second siege of Fort Meigs, Ohio, July 21st.
" Attack on Fort Stephenson, Ohio, August 2d.
" Austria joins the allies in the war against Napoleon, August 10th.
" Battle of Gros-Beeren, Prussia, August 23d.
" Battle of Katzbach, Prussia, August 26th.
" Battle of Dresden, Saxony, August 26th, 27th.
" Battles of Culm and Nollendorf, Bohemia, August 29th, 30th.
" Battle of Dennewitz, Prussia, September 6th.
" Perry's victory on Lake Erie, September 10th.
" Battle of the Thames, Canada, October 5th.
" Battle of Leipsic, Saxony, October 16th, 17th, and 18th.
" Napoleon begins his retreat from Leipsic, October 19th.
" War with the Creek Indians in Alabama, November.
" Battle of Chrysler's Field, Canada, November 11th.
" Mexican Declaration of Independence, November 13th.
1814 Invasion of France by the allied armies, January 1st.
" Denmark cedes Norway to Sweden by the Peace of Kiel, January.
" Pope Pius VII. restored to his authority in Rome, January.
" Battle of Brienne, France, January 27th.
" Battle of La Rothiere, France, February 1st.
" Napoleon's victory at Montereau, February 18th.
" Battle of Tohopeka, or Great Horse Shoe, Alabama, March 27th.
" First capitulation of Paris to the allies, March 31st.
" Treaty of Fontainbleau,—Napoleon's abdication, April 11th.
" Battle of Toulouse, France,—Wellington defeats Soult, April 11th.
" Napoleon arrives in Elba, May 4th.
" Louis XVIII. placed on the throne of France, May 20th.
" First Peace of Paris between France and the allies, May 30th.
" Battle of Chippewa, Canada, July 5th.
" Battle of Lundy's Lane, Canada, July 25th.
" Battle of Bladensburg, Maryland, August 24th.
" Washington City captured and burned by the British, August 24th.
" Battle of Plattsburg, New York, September 11th.
" Battle of North Point, Maryland, September 12th.
" British bombardment of Fort McHenry, Maryland, Sept. 12th–14th.
" A Congress of European Powers meets at Vienna, October 2d.

1814 Jackson's invasion of Florida and capture of Pensacola, November.
" Battle below New Orleans, Louisiana, December 23d.
" Peace of Ghent between Great Britain and the United States, Dec. 24th.
1815 Battle of New Orleans, Louisiana, January 8th.
" Napoleon returns to France and recovers his throne, March.
" England, Austria, Russia, and Prussia combine against Napoleon.
" Napoleon compels the Prussians to evacuate Charleroi, Belgium, June 15th.
" Battles of Ligny and Quatre-Bras, Belgium, June 16th.
" Battle of Waterloo, Belgium, June 18th.
" Commodore Decatur humbles Algiers, June 30th.
" Second abdication of Napoleon, July 2d.
" Second capitulation of Paris, July 7th.
" Louis XVIII. restored to the throne of France, July 8th.
" Napoleon banished to St. Helena, where he arrives October 2d.
" The Holy Alliance formed, September 25th.
" The Germanic Confederation established.
" Second Peace of Paris between France and the allies, November 20th.
1816 Argentine Declaration of Independence, July 9th.
" Lord Exmouth humbles Algiers, August 27th.
" Indiana admitted as a State of the American Union, December.
1817 Battle of Chacabaco, Chili,—the Spaniards defeated.
" President James Monroe's inauguration, March 4th.
" Admission of Mississippi into the American Union.
" Raids of the Seminole and Creek Indians in Georgia.
" Republican conspiracy in England.
1818 Battle of Maypu and emancipation of Chili, April 5th.
" The Wahabees of Arabia subdued by Mehemet Ali.
" General Jackson's second invasion of Florida and seizure of Pensacola.
" Admission of Illinois as a State of the American Union.
1819 Spain cedes Florida to the United States.
" Popular demonstration at Manchester, England.
" European Congress at Aix la Chapelle.
" Alabama admitted into the American Union.
1820 Death of George III. of England and accession of George IV., January.
" Conquest of Nubia and Kordofan by the Pasha of Egypt.
" Revolution in Spain and reëstablishment of the Cortes Constitution.
" Revolution in Portugal and establishment of a liberal constitution.
" Revolution in Naples and establishment of a liberal constitution.
" The Holy Alliance restores absolute monarchy in Naples.
" Maine admitted into the American Union.
" The Missouri Compromise agreed to.
1821 Death of Napoleon Bonaparte at St. Helena, May 5th.

1821 Revolution in Piedmont crushed by Austrian power.
" Admission of Missouri as a State of the American Union, August 21st.
" Alexander Ypsilanti's proclamation to the Greeks.
" Commencement of the Greek War for Independence.
" Mexico becomes independent of Spain.
" San Martin rouses the Peruvians to revolution.
" War between Turkey and Persia.
1822 Don Augustin Iturbide created Emperor of Mexico.
" Brazil declared an independent empire.
" Desolation of Scio by the Turks.
1823 A French army restores absolutism in Spain.
" Surrender of Puerto Cabello to the Colombians.
" Iturbide, Emperor of Mexico, overthrown.
1824 Death of Lord Byron at Missolonghi, Greece, April 19th.
" Death of Louis XVIII. of France and accession of Charles X.
" General Lafayette's visit to the United States.
" The East-India Company involved in a war with the Burmese.
" A Federal Constitution adopted in Mexico.
" Battle of Junin, Peru, August 6th,—the Spaniards defeated.
" Battle of Ayacucho and emancipation of Peru, December 9th.
1825 General Guadalupe Victoria inaugurated President of Mexico, Jan. 1st.
" John Quincy Adams inaugurated President of the United States, March 4th.
" War between Russia and Persia.
" Death of the Czar Alexander I. and accession of Nicholas.
" France acknowledges the independence of Hayti.
1826 Bloody destruction of the Janissaries at Constantinople.
" Surrender of Callao, Peru, to the Peruvians.
" Spanish American Congress at Panama.
" Capture of Missolonghi, Greece, by the Turks, August.
" Death of John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, July 4th.
1827 Intervention of England, France, and Russia in favor of Greece.
" Battle of Navarino and annihilation of the Turko-Egyptian fleet, Oct. 20th.
" First Railroad in the United States built.
1828 Revolution in Mexico and flight of General Pedraza, November.
" War between Russia and Turkey.
" Abolition of the Test Act by the British Parliament.
" Establishment of the American System.
1829 General Andrew Jackson inaugurated President, March 4th.
" Catholic Emancipation Act passed by Parliament.
" Peace of Adrianople between Russia and Turkey.
1830 Death of George IV. and accession of William IV., June.

1830 The city of Algiers taken by a French fleet, July 4th.
" Revolution in Paris and dethronement of Charles X., July.
" Louis Philippe created " King of the French," August 9th.
" Belgium becomes an independent kingdom.
" Rebellion in Poland against Russian authority, November.
1831 Popular movements in Germany and Italy.
" Battle of Ostrolenka, Poland, May 20th.
" Fall of Warsaw and end of the Polish insurrection, September.
" Assassination of John Capo d' Istria, the Greek President.
" Abdication of Dom Pedro I. of Brazil and accession of Dom Pedro II.
" Mehemet Ali's first rebellion against the Ottoman Porte.
" Dissolution of the Republic of Colombia.
1832 Siege and capture of Acre, Syria, by the Egyptians.
" Battle of Homs, Syria, July 8th,—the Egyptians defeat the Turks.
" The Russians take the Circassian post of Himry, October 8th.
" President Bustamente overthrown in Mexico.
" Santa Anna chosen President of Mexico.
" Civil war in Portugal between Dom Pedro and Dom Miguel.
" Passage of the First Reform Bill by the British Parliament.
" Black Hawk War in Illinois and Wisconsin.
" President Jackson's collision with the U. S. Supreme Court.
" Nullification in South Carolina, November.
1833 Removal of deposits from the United States Bank.
" King Otho I. ascends the throne of Greece, March.
" The Sultan of Turkey cedes Syria to the Pasha of Egypt.
" The British Parliament abolishes slavery in the British West Indies.
" Death of King Ferdinand VII. of Spain and accession of Isabella II.
" Civil war begins in Spain between the Christinos and Carlists.
1835 Beginning of the Texan War for Independence, October.
" Capture of the Alamo by the Mexicans, December 2d.
" Commencement of the Seminole War in Florida, December 29th.
1836 Battle of San Jacinto, Texas, April 21st,—Santa Anna captured.
" Texas becomes an independent republic.
" Arkansas admitted into the American Union.
1837 Michigan becomes a State of the American Union.
" Martin Van Buren inaugurated President of the United States, March 4th.
" Death of William IV. of England and accession of Victoria, June.
" Rebellion in Canada against British authority.
" Osceola, the Seminole chief, treacherously made a prisoner, October.
1838 General Mexia's rebellion in Mexico.
" Vera Cruz, Mexico, attacked by a French fleet, November.
1839 Revolution in Peru and overthrow of General Santa Cruz.
" Mehemet Ali's second rebellion against the Sultan of Turkey.

1839 Battle of Nisib, Syria—the Egyptians defeat the Turks, June 24th.
" England's opium war with China begins.
" Anglo-Indian invasion of Afghanistan.
1840 Acre and Beyreut, Syria, bombarded and taken by the British navy.
" The remains of the Emperor Napoleon I. brought to Paris.
" Sanguinary insurrection in the city of Mexico.
1841 Disastrous retreat of the British from Cabul, Afghanistan.
" Canton, China, captured by the British and ransomed by the Chinese.
" Revolution in Mexico and downfall of Bustamente.
" General William Henry Harrison inaugurated President, March 4th.
" Death of President Harrison, April 4th.
" John Tyler's inauguration, April 6th.
1842 Domestic difficulties in Rhode Island.
" The Treaty of Washington settles the Maine boundary dispute.
" Treaty of Nankin between Great Britain and China, August 29th.
1843 Battles of Hyderabad, Maharajpore, and Punniar, India.
" Annexation of Scinde and Gwalior to British India.
" The Russians take the Circassian fortress of Akulgo by storm.
1844 First experiment with the Electro-Magnetic Telegraph.
" The towns of Tangier and Mogadore, Morocco, bombarded by a French fleet.
" Revolution in Mexico and overthrow and banishment of Santa Anna.
1845 Florida admitted into the American Union, March 3d.
" Inauguration of President James Knox Polk, March 4th.
" Annexation of Texas to the United States, July 4th.
" Battle of Moodkee between the English and the Sikhs, December 6th.
1846 Battles of Ferozeshah, Aliwal, and Sobraon, and end of the First Sikh War.
" The British Parliament repeals the Corn Laws.
" Commencement of hostilities between the Americans and Mexicans, April 26.
" Battle of Palo Alto, Texas, May 8th.
" Battle of Resaca de la Palma, Texas, May 9th.
" The United States declare war against Mexico, May 11th.
" Capture of Matamoras, Mexico, by General Taylor, May 18th.
" Revolution in Mexico and Santa Anna's restoration to power.
" Capture of Monterey, Mexico, by General Taylor, September 24th.
" Conquest of California by Colonel Fremont.
" Battle of Bracito, Mexico,—the Mexicans defeated by Colonel Doniphan, December 25th.
" Iowa admitted into the American Union, December.
1847 Battle of Buena Vista, Mexico, February 22d and 23d.
" Battle of Sacramento, Mexico, February 28th.

1847 Siege and capture of Vera Cruz by General Scott, March.
" Battle of Cerro Gordo, Mexico, April 18th and 19th.
" Battles of San Antonio, Contreras, and Churubusco, August 20th.
" Battle of Molino del Rey, Mexico, September 8th.
" Battle of Chapultepec, Mexico, September 13th.
" General Scott enters the city of Mexico, September 14th.
" The French conquest of Algiers completed by the surrender of Abd el Kader.
" Civil war in Switzerland between the Catholics and Protestants.
1848 Peace of Guadaloupe Hidalgo between Mexico and the United States, February 2d.
" Revolution in Paris and abdication and flight of Louis Philippe, Feb.
" Establishment of the Second French Republic, February.
" Popular movements in the German States, March.
" The First Revolution in Vienna, March.
" Revolution in Milan, Italy, and expulsion of the Austrians, March.
" Revolution in Berlin, March.
" Sicily's revolt against the King of Naples.
" Revolt of Schleswig-Holstein against the King of Denmark.
" First Communist rising in Paris, May 15th.
" The German National Assembly meets at Frankfort, May 18th.
" Archduke John of Austria chosen Regent of Germany.
" Wisconsin admitted into the American Union, May.
" Slavic insurrection in Prague, Bohemia, June.
" Great Communist insurrection in Paris, June.
" The old Austrian field-marshal Radetzky defeats the Sardinians, July.
" Second Revolution in Vienna, October.
" Siege and fall of Vienna, October.
" Dissolution of the Prussian National Assembly.
" Hungarian rebellion against the Austrian Emperor.
" Revolution in Rome and flight of Pope Pius IX., November.
" Establishment of a new Roman Republic, November.
" Louis Napoleon Bonaparte inaugurated President of France, Dec. 20th.
" Abdication of Ferdinand of Austria and accession of Francis Joseph.
1849 The Austrians under Prince Windischgratz enter Pesth, Hungary, January 5th.
" The Magyars lose the strong fortress of Essek, in Slavonia, Jan. 30th.
" Battle of Kapolna, Hungary, February 26th and 27th.
" The Emperor Francis Joseph proclaims a constitution for Austria, March 4th.
" General Zachary Taylor inaugurated President of the United States, March 5th.
" Renewal of the Schleswig-Holstein revolt against Denmark, March.

1849 Defeat of the Sardinians by Marshal Radetzky and abdication of Charles Albert.
" Terrific hand-to-hand fighting in Hungary, April.
" Hungarian Declaration of Independence, April 14th.
" Louis Kossuth created Governor of Hungary, April 14th.
" The Magyars under Görgey carry Buda by storm, May 21st.
" The Austrian armies expelled from Hungary, May.
" Invasion of Hungary by the Austrian and Russian armies, June.
" The Magyars under Bem driven from Transylvania.
" Surrender of Rome to a French army after a spirited siege, July 3d.
" Pope Pius IX. restored to his authority in Rome.
" Republican insurrection in Baden.
" Battle of Komorn, Hungary, July 11th.
" General Klapka's grand sortie from Komorn, August 3d.
" Terrific fighting in the Banat, Hungary, August 5th–8th.
" Battle of Temeswar,—defeat of the Magyars under Bem, August 9th.
" Governor Kossuth appoints Görgey Dictator of Hungary, August 10th.
" Görgey's treacherous surrender to the Russians at Villagos, August 13th.
" The Austrians under Radetzky reduce Venice after a long siege, August 25th.
" Surrender of Komorn to the Austrians, September 29th.
" Thirteen Magyar generals and staff-officers executed at Arad, Oct. 6th.
" The Punjab annexed to the Anglo-Indian Empire.
1850 Prussia becomes a constitutional monarchy, February 6th.
" Death of President Taylor, July 9th.
" Inauguration of Millard Fillmore, July 10th.
" Slavery agitation in the United States.
" The Compromise Act passed by the United States Congress, September.
" Admission of California into the American Union.
1851 Louis Kossuth's visit to the United States.
" War between France and Morocco.
" The Coup d' Etat of Louis Napoleon, December 2d.
1852 The Rebellion of Tae-ping-Wang in China begins.
" Second war between the English and the Burmese.
" Louis Napoleon proclaimed " Emperor of the French," December 2d.
1853 Subjugation of the Kaffirs of South Africa by the English.
" Marriage of the Emperor Napoleon III. with Eugenie de Montijo.
" Franklin Pierce inaugurated President of the United States, March 4th
" Nankin, China, captured by the Tae-ping rebels.
" Santa Anna overthrows Arista's Administration in Mexico.
" War breaks out between Russia and Turkey, October.
" Russian invasion of Turkey.
1854 Turkish victories on the Danube.

1854 Siege of Silistria by the Russians.
" Alliance of England, France, and Turkey against Russia.
" Bombardment of Odessa by the allied fleets, April 22d.
" Allied expedition to the Crimea.
" Battle of Alma, September 20th.
" Siege of Sevastopol commenced, October 17th.
" Battle of Balaklava, October 25th.
" Battle of Inkermann, November 5th.
" Insurrection in Madrid and flight of the queen-mother.
" Passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act by the United States Congress.
" Revolution in Mexico and final overthrow of Santa Anna.
1855 Death of the Czar Nicholas of Russia and accession of Alexander II.
" Sardinia joins the allies in the Crimean War.
" Sir Charles Napier's attack on Sweaborg, August 9th–14th.
" Fall of Sevastopol, September 9th.
" Capture of Kinburn by General Bazaine, October.
" Omar Pasha's victory over the Russians at the Ingour, November.
" Surrender of Kars, in Asiatic Turkey, to the Russians, Nov. 28th.
" Civil war in Kansas.
1856 Peace of Paris between Russia and the allies, March 30th.
" War between England and Persia.
" War of England and France against China.
" Bombardment and capture of Canton by the English.
1857 James Buchanan inaugurated President of the United States, March 4th.
" The Dred Scott Decision of the United States Supreme Court, March 6th.
" Mormon rebellion in Utah.
" Beginning of the Sepoy Mutiny in British India, April.
" Massacre of Delhi, India.
" Massacre of Cawnpore, India.
" Siege of Lucknow, India.
" General Havelock's victories over Nena Sahib on the Ganges.
" Battle of Mungarwar India, September 21st.
" Siege and fall of Delhi, India, September.
" Cawnpore attacked by 25,000 rebel Sepoys, December.
1858 Capture of Lucknow by Sir Colin Campbell, after a siege, March 17th.
" Reduction of Gwalior, the last stronghold of the Sepoys, June.
" War of France and Spain against Anam.
" Civil war in Mexico between the Liberals and Conservatives.
1859 War breaks out between Austria and Sardinia, April.
" France joins Sardinia against Austria in the Italian War, May.
" Battle of Montebello, Italy, May 20th.
" Battle of Magenta, Italy, June 4th.
" Battle of Melegnano, Italy, June 8th.

1859 Battle of Solferino, Italy, June 24th.
" Peace of Villa Franca between France and Austria, July 11th.
" Capture of Schamyl, the Circassian chief, by the Russians, August.
" War breaks out between Spain and Morocco, October.
" John Brown's insurrection in Virginia, October 19th.
" Execution of John Brown by the authorities of Virginia, December 2d.
1860 The Spaniards under General Prim defeat 40,000 Moors, January 2d.
" Peace between Spain and Morocco, April.
" Capture of Pekin, China by the English and French.
" Treaty of Tien-tsin, between England, France, and China, October.
" Abraham Lincoln elected President of the United States, November
" Rebellious movements in the Slave States.
" Secession of South Carolina from the American Union, Dec. 20th.
" General Garibaldi overthrows King Francis II. of Naples.
1861 Attack on the United States Government steamer " Star of the West," January 9th.
" Secession of Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas.
" President Lincoln's first inauguration, March 4th.
" Fall of Fort Sumter and beginning of the American Civil War, April 14th.
" President Lincoln calls for 75,000 militia, April 15th.
" Secession of Virginia from the American Union, April 17th.
" Massachusetts troops attacked in Baltimore, April 19th.
" Secession of North Carolina, Arkansas, and Tennessee.
" Battle of Big Bethel, Virginia, June 10th.
" Battle of Carthage, Missouri, July 5th.
" Battle of Bull's Run, Virginia, July 21.
" Battle of Wilson's Creek, Missouri, August 10th.
" Capture of Hatteras Inlet, North Carolina, August 29th.
" Capture of Lexington, Missouri, by the Confederates, September.
" Battle of Ball's Bluff, Virginia, October 21st.
" Battle of Belmont, Missouri, November 7th.
" Capture of Port Royal, South Carolina, by Admiral Dupont, Nov. 7th.
" The Czar Alexander II. of Russia promises serf-emancipation, February.
" Renewal of the Circassian war against the Russians, July.
" King Victor Emmanuel of Sardinia created King of Italy.
" Allied English, French, and Spanish expedition against Mexico, December.
1862 Battle of Mill Spring, Kentucky, January 19th.
" Capture of Roanoke Island, North Carolina, February 8th.
" Capture of Fort Donelson, Tennessee, by General Grant, February 16th.
" Battle of Pea Ridge, Arkansas, March 6th, 7th, and 8th.
" Victory of the Monitor over the Merrimac, March 8th.
" Capture of Newbern, North Carolina, by Burnside, March 14th.

1862 Battle of Winchester, Virginia, March 23d.
" Battle of Shiloh, Tennessee, April 6th and 7th.
" Capture of Island No. 10, Mississippi river, April 7th.
" Capture of Fort Pulaski, Georgia, by Captain Gillmore, April 11th.
" Capture of Huntsville, Alabama, by General Mitchel, April 11th.
" Capture of Fort Macon, North Carolina, April 25th.
" Capture of New Orleans by General Butler and Admiral Farragut, April 28th.
" Evacuation of Yorktown, Virginia, by the Confederates, May 3d.
" Battle of Williamsburg, Virginia, May 5th.
" Capture of Natchez, Mississippi, by Admiral Farragut, May 12th.
" Capture of Vera Cruz, Mexico, by the Spaniards.
" Capture of Corinth, Mississippi, by General Halleck, May 29th.
" Battle of Fair Oaks, Virginia, May 31st and June 1st.
" Capture of Memphis, Tennessee, June 6th.
" The Seven Days' Battles near Richmond, Virginia, June 25th,—July 1st.
" Battle of Malvern Hill near Richmond, Virginia, July 1st.
" Defeat of General Pope's army between Manassas and Washington, August 23d–31st.
" Battle of Richmond, Kentucky, August 29th and 30th.
" Garibaldi's defeat at Aspromonte, Italy, August 29th.
" Battle of South Mountain, Maryland, September 14th.
" Surrender of Harper's Ferry, Virginia, September 15th.
" Battle of Antietam, Maryland, September 17th.
" Battle of Iuka, Mississippi, September 19th.
" Battles near Corinth, Mississippi, October 3d, 4th, and 5th.
" Battle of Perryville, Kentucky, October 8th.
" Revolution in Greece and flight of King Otho, October.
" Insurrection in Poland against Russian authority.
" War between the whites and the Sioux Indians in Minnesota.
" Battle of Prairie Grove, Arkansas, December 7th.
" Battle of Fredericksburg, Virginia, December 13th.
" Battle of Murfreesborough, Tennessee, Dec. 29th–Jan. 4th, 1863.
" Sherman's unsuccessful attack on Vicksburg, December 29th.
1863 President Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation, January 1st.
" Emancipation of the Russian serfs, February 1st.
" Prince George of Denmark becomes King of Greece.
" Battle of Port Gibson, Mississippi, April 29th.
" Battle of Chancellorsville, Virginia, May 2d, 3d, and 4th.
" Battle of Raymond, Mississippi, May 12th.
" Battle of Jackson, Mississippi, May 14th.
" Battle of Champion Hills, Mississippi, May 16th.
" Battle of Big Black River Bridge, Mississippi, May 17th.

1863 Capture of Puebla, Mexico, by the French, after a spirited siege, May 18th.
" West Virginia becomes a State of the American Union, June 1st.
" Battle of Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, July 1st, 2d, and 3d.
" Surrender of Vicksburg, Mississippi, to General Grant, July 4th.
" Union victory at Helena, Arkansas, July 4th.
" Capture of Port Hudson, Louisiana, by General Banks, July 8th.
" The draft riots in New York City, July 13th, 14th, and 15th.
" Capture of the City of Mexico by General Forey, June.
" Siege of Charleston, South Carolina, by General Gillmore.
" Capture of Little Rock, Arkansas, by General Steele, September 10th.
" Battle of Chickamauga, Tennessee, September 19th and 20th.
" Battle of Chattanooga, Tennessee, November 23d, 24th, and 25th.
" Siege of Knoxville, Tennessee, by General Longstreet, November.
1864 War of Prussia and Austria against Denmark, February.
" Grant made a Lieutenant-General, February.
" Battle of Olustee, Florida, February 20th.
" Massacre of Fort Pillow, Tennessee, April 12th.
" General Banks's Red River Expedition, Louisiana.
" The Archduke Maximillian of Austria, Emperor of Mexico.
" Capture of Doppel, Holstein, by the Prussians, April 18th.
" Battles of the Wilderness and Spottsylvania, Virginia, May 5th–13th.
" Battle of Cold Harbor, Virginia, June 1st.
" Battle of Allatoona Pass, Georgia, June.
" Battle of Kenesaw Mountain, Georgia, June.
" Siege of Petersburg and Richmond, Virginia, June.
" Fight between the Kearsarge and the Alabama, June 15th.
" Battle of Monocacy, Maryland, July 9th.
" Capture of the island of Alsen by the Prussians, July 9th.
" War of Brazil and the Argentine Confederation against Paraguay.
" War between Spain and Peru.
" War of England, France, and Holland in Japan.
" Russia suppresses the Polish insurrection.
" Peace of Vienna between Austria, Prussia, and Denmark, October.
" Siege of Atlanta, Georgia, commenced by General Sherman, July 20th.
" Burning of Chambersburg, Pennsylvania, July 30th.
" Farragut's victories in Mobile bay, August.
" Capture of Atlanta, Georgia, by Sherman, September 2d.
" Sheridan's victory at Cedar Creek, Virginia, September 22d.
" Sheridan's victory at Fisher's Hill, Virginia, October 19th.
" Nevada admitted into the American Union, October 31st.
" Reëlection of President Lincoln, November 8th.
" Sherman's grand march through Georgia, November and December.

1864 Hood's army annihilated at Nashville, Tennessee, December 15th.
" Capture of Savannah, Georgia, by General Sherman, December 21st.
1865 Capture of Fort Fisher, North Carolina, by General Terry, January 15th.
" Capture of Wilmington, North Carolina, by Terry, February 22d.
" Charleston, South Carolina, evacuated by the Confederates, Feb. 18th.
" Lee's evacuation of Petersburg and Richmond, April 3d.
" Surrender of Lee's army at Appomattox, Virginia, April 9th.
" Capture of Mobile, Alabama, by General Canby, April 12th.
" Assassination of President Lincoln, April 14th.
" Andrew Johnson inaugurated President of the United States, April 15th.
" Surrender of Johnston's army in North Carolina, April 26th.
" Capture of Jefferson Davis near Irwinsville, Georgia, May 10th.
" Close of the Rebellion in the United States, May.
" Adoption of the 13th Amendment of the United States Constitution abolishing slavery.
" War between Spain and Chili.
" Russian conquests in Turkestan.
1866 Alliance of Peru, Chili, Ecuador, Bolivia, and Venezuela against Spain, January.
" Readmission of Tennessee into the American Union, June.
" The Seven Weeks' War of Prussia and Italy against Austria begins, June 14th.
" Battle of Custozza, Italy, June 24th.
" Battle of Sadowa, Bohemia, July 3d.
" Naval battle off the island of Lissa,—Austrian victory.
" The Atlantic Telegraph Cable successfully laid, June.
" Peace of Prague between Austria and Prussia, August 23d.
" The North German Confederation established.
" Peace of Vienna between Austria and Italy, October 3d.
" Insurrection in the island of Candia against the Turks.
" The French forces under Marshal Bazaine evacuate Mexico, December.
1867 Nebraska admitted as a State of the American Union, January 15th.
" The Dominion of Canada established by the British Parliament, Feb.
" Passage of the Military Reconstruction Bill by the United States Congress, March.
" Purchase of Alaska from Russia by the United States, March.
" Siege of Vera Cruz and Mexico by the Liberals of Mexico.
" Capture and execution of the Emperor Maximilian at Queretaro, June 19th.
" Passage of the Second Reform Bill by the British Parliament, August.
" Garibaldi's movement on Rome, September.
" War between Great Britain and Abyssinia, November.
1868 Impeachment of President Johnson, February.

1868 King Theodore of Abyssinia defeated and killed by the English, April.
" Acquittal of President Johnson after a trial of several weeks, May 16th.
" Revolution in Spain and flight of Queen Isabella II., September.
" General U. S. Grant elected President of the United States, Nov. 3d.
" Insurrection in Cuba against Spanish authority, November.
1869 Inauguration of President Grant, March 4th.
" Completion of the Union Pacific Railroad, May.
" Disestablishment of the Anglican Church in Ireland, August.
" Carlist insurrection in Spain, August.
" Republican insurrection in Spain, September.
1870 President Lopez of Paraguay defeated and killed by the Brazilians.
" Adoption of the 15th Amendment of the United States Constitution.
" Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern a candidate for the crown of Spain.
" France declares war against Prussia, July 15th.
" Prussian invasion of France, July 30th.
" Skirmish at Saarbrucken, August 2d.
" Battle of Weissenburg, August 4th.
" Battles of Woerth and Forbach, August 6th.
" Great battles near Metz, August 14th–18th.
" Battle of Gravelotte, France, August 18th.
" Battle of Beaumont, France, August 30th and 31st.
" Battle of Sedan, France, September 1st.
" Surrender of McMahon's army and of Napoleon III., September 2d.
" Revolution in Paris and establishment of the Third French Republic, September 4th.
" Siege of Strassburg by the Germans, August and September.
" Investment and siege of Paris by the Germans, September 16th.
" Italian military occupation of Rome, September 20th.
" Surrender of Strassburg to the Germans, September 27th.
" Bazaine's surrender of Metz, October 27th.
" French victories near Orleans, November 9th and 10th.
" The Duke of Aosta elected King of Spain with title of Amadeus I., November 17th.
1871 Bombardment of Paris by the Germans, January.
" Battle of St. Quentin, France, January.
" Battle of Vendome, France, January 6th.
" Battle of Le Mans, France, January 11th.
" Battle of Belfort, France, January.
" King William of Prussia proclaimed Emperor of Germany, Jan. 19th.
" Capitulation of Paris to the Germans, January 27th.
" The French National Assembly meets at Bordeaux, February 14th.
" Peace of Paris between France and Germany, March 2d.
" Red Republican insurrection breaks out in Paris, March 17th.

1871 Battle of Courbevoie, near Paris, April 3d.
" Siege and bombardment of Paris by the Versaillists, April and May.
" Terrible fighting in Paris, May 21st–27th.
" Battle of Pere la Chaise, Paris, May 27th.
" End of the Paris rebellion, May 28th.
" Treaty of Washington between the United States and England, May.
" Victories of the United States navy over the Koreans, June 10th–11th.
" Revolution and civil war in Mexico, October.
1872 Carlist insurrection in Spain, June.
" Death of President Juarez of Mexico, June 18th.
" Close of the Mexican civil war and presidency of Lerdo de Tejada.
" The Alabama Claims Arbitration Tribunal.
" General Grant reëlected President of the United States, November 5th.
" Death of Horace Greeley, November 29th.
1873 Death of the Ex-Emperor Napoleon III., January 9th.
" Abdication of King Amadeus of Spain and establishment of a Spanish Republic, February 11th.
" Second inauguration of President Grant, March 4th.
" Abolition of slavery in the Spanish island of Porto Rico and dissolution of the Spanish National Assembly, March 22d.
" Carlist insurrection in Spain.
" War between Russia and Khiva.
" Domestic difficulties in Louisiana.
" War with the Modoc Indians in Oregon.
" Resignation of President Thiers and election of Marshal McMahon as President of France, May 24th.
" War between the British and the Ashantees.
" Communist insurrection in Spain.
" War between the Dutch and the Atcheenese of Sumatra.
" The Virginius dispute between Spain and the United States.
" Bombardment of Cartagena, Spain, by the Government forces.
1874 Coup d' etat of General Pavia in Spain, January 2d.
" Passage of a military bill by the German Parliament.
" Fall of Cartagena, Spain, January 14th.
" Capture of Coomassie, the Ashantee capital, by the British, February.
" Fall of Gladstone's Ministry in England, February.
" Egyptian victories in Darfur.
" Siege of Bilbao, Spain, by the Carlists, March and April.
" Relief of Bilbao by Marshal Serrano's army, May 1st.
" Civil war in Arkansas, April and May.
" Veto of the currency-inflation bill by President Grant, April.
" Republican defeat at Estella, Spain, and death of Marshal Concha, June 25th.

1874 Capture of Cuenca, Spain, by the Carlists, July 13th.
" Attempted assassination of Prince Bismarck, July 14th.
" Iceland's millenium, August.
" Insurrection in Louisiana, September.
" Prince Alfonso proclaimed King of Spain, December 31st.
1875 Enabling act of Congress for the admission of Colorado, March 4th.
" Centennial Celebration of Lexington and Concord, April 19th.
" Centennial Celebration of the capture of Ticonderoga, May 10th.
" Centennial Celebration of the Mecklenburg Declaration, May 20th.
" Centennial Celebration of the Battle of Bunker's Hill, June 17th.
" Insurrection in the Herzegovina against the Turks, July.
" Capture of Seo de Urgel, Spain, by the Alfonists, August.
" War between Russia and Khokand, September.
" General Kaufmann defeats 30,000 Khokand troops, September 4th.
" Khokand occupied by General Kaufmann, September 16th.
" War between Egypt and Abyssinia.
" War between the English and the Malays of Malacca, November.
" French Constitution completed, December.
1876 Suppression of the Carlist insurrection in Spain, March.
" Centennial International Exposition at Philadelphia May 10–November 10.
" Centennial Anniversary of American Independence, July 4.
" Colorado admitted into the American Union, July.
" Visit of Dom Pedro II., Emperor of Brazil, to the United States.
" War with the Sioux Indians in Montana.
" Massacre of General Custer and his detachment, June 25.
" Turko-Servian War, July, August and September.
" Disputed Presidential election in the United States.
" Civil war over the Presidency in Mexico.
1877 Queen Victoria proclaimed Empress of India, January 1.
" European Conference at Constantinople, January.
" General Porfirio Diaz overthrows his rivals in Mexico.
" Settlement of the Presidential dispute in the United States, February.
" President Rutherford Birchard Hayes inaugurated, March 5.
" War breaks out between Russia and Turkey, April.
" Russian invasion of Turkey, April.
" Siege of Kars, April and May.
" War with the Nez Perce Indians in Idaho, June–September.
" Railroad labor riots in the United States, July.
" British annexation of the First Transvaal Republic.
" Defeat of the Russians in Armenia, June and July.
" Defeats of the Russians at Plevna, July 19 and 30 and September 12.
" Battles at the Shipka Pass, Bulgaria, August.

1877 Battles of Aladjah Dagh, Armenia, October and November.
" Battle of Deve Boyun, Armenia, November.
" Capture of Kars by the Russians, November 18.
" Capture of Plevna by the Russians, December 10.
1878 Death of King Victor Emmanuel of Italy and accession of Humbert, January 9.
" Death of Pope Pius IX. and accession of Leo XIII., February 7.
" Russian victory at Philippopolis, February.
" Russian advance on Constantinople, February.
" British fleet approaches Constantinople, February.
" Anglo-Russian crisis, February.
" Russo-Turkish armistice, February.
" Peace of San Stefano between Russia and Turkey, March 2.
" Emperor William I. of Germany shot at by Hoedel, May 17.
" Emperor Will[illegible] I. wounded by Dr. Nobiling, June 2.
" Island of Cyprus ceded by Turkey to Great Britain, June.
" Congress of European Powers at Berlin, June 13–July 13.
" Treaty of Berlin, July 13.
" Austria-Hungary acquires Bosnia and Herzegovina, after a desperate struggle with the Bosnians, August and September.
" War with the Bannack Indians in Oregon.
" International Exposition at Paris.
" Activity of the Socialists of Germany and the Nihilists of Russia.
" Passage of a bill by the German Reichstag for the suppression of Socialism.
" War between Great Britain and Afghanistan, November and December.
1879 Resignation of President MacMahon of France and election of Jules Grevy as President of France, January 30.
" Definitive Peace of Constantinople between Russia and Turkey, February 8.
" War of Peru and Bolivia against Chili.
" War between the British and the Zulus in South Africa.
" Czar Alexander II. shot at by a Nihilist, April 14.
" Renewal of the Anglo-Afghan war, September.
" War with the Ute Indians of Colorado.
" Attempt to wreck the Czar's train near Moscow, December.
1880 Dynamite explosion in the Czar's Winter Palace, February 18.
" Lord Beaconsfield's Conservative Ministry in Great Britain succeeded by a Liberal Ministry under Gladstone, April.
" Turkey coerced by the European Powers under Great Britain's leadership to cede Dulcigno to Montenegro.
" General Gonzales elected President of Mexico, July.
" British defeat in Afghanistan, July 30.

1880 James Abram Garfield elected President of the United States, November 2.
" Agrarian agitation in Ireland.
" Chilian victories in Bolivia and Peru.
" Transvaal revolt against the British in South Africa, December.
1881 Boer victory over the British at Majuba Hill, February 27.
" Chili victorious over Bolivia and Peru.
" Inauguration of President Garfield, March 4.
" Assassination of the Czar Alexander II., March 13.
" Accession of Alexander III., March 14.
" Roumania made a kingdom, May 22.
" Russia's war with the Turkomans.
" Death of Lord Beaconsfield, April 19.
" French seizure of Tunis, May.
" President Garfield shot by Charles Jules Guiteau, July 2.
" Passage of the Irish Land Act by the British Parliament, August.
" Death of President Garfield, September 19.
" Inauguration of President Arthur, September 20.
" The Yorktown Centennial, October 19.
1882 Servia made a Kingdom, March 6.
" Assassination of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Under Secretary Burke, May 6.
" Persecution of Russian Jews.
" Herzegovinian revolt against Austria-Hungary.
" Arabi Pasha's rebellion against the Khedive of Egypt.
" Bombardment of Alexandria, Egypt, by a British fleet under Admiral Seymour, July 11–13.
" The Egyptian rebels under Arabi Pasha overthrown by the British under Sir Garnet Wolseley at Tel-el-Kebir, September 13.
1883 French war in Madagascar.
" French war in Tonquin.
" El Mahdi's victory over the Egyptians at El Obeid, November.
" Hicks Pasha defeated and killed by the Egyptian rebels, December 3.
1884 Baker Pasha defeated by the Egyptian rebels, February 4.
" Sinkat taken and its garrison massacred by the Egyptian rebels, February 11.
" Tokar taken by the Egyptian rebels, February 21.
" General Graham defeats the Egyptian rebels at Teb, February 29, and at Tamanieb, March 13 and 27.
" Massacre of the garrisons of Shendy and Berber by the Egyptian rebels, April 15 and May 26.
" France's war with China.
" Capture of Keelung, China, by the French navy, August 5.
" Bombardment of Foochow, China, by the French navy, August 23–25.

1884 War between France and China, August.
" French reoccupation of Keelung and seizure of Formosa, October.
" Chinese repulsed by the French at Kep, in Tonquin, October.
" French repulsed by the Chinese at Tamsui, Formosa, October 12.
" Chinese defeated by the French at Tuyen-Kwang, October 13.
" Passage of the Franchise Bill by the British Parliament.
" General Porfirio Diaz elected President of Mexico, July.
" Grover Cleveland elected President of the United States, November 4.
" Kongo Free State established in Central Africa.
" World's Fair at New Orleans.
1885 French capture the Keelung coal mines, January 25.
" French occupied Langson, February 14.
" Inauguration of President Cleveland, March 4.
" Disastrous French defeat at Langson, March.
" Peace between France and China, April 3.
" Gladstone's resignation and Lord Salisbury's first Ministry, June 22.
" French in Anam attacked by Anamites, July 6.
" Ex-President Grant's death, July 23.
" Grant's funeral pageant in New York City, August 8.
" Eastern Roumelia's union with Bulgaria, September 18.
" French victory over the Anamites, October 26.
" Death of El Mahdi.
" British conquest of Burmah.
" Servo-Bulgarian War, October, November and December.
" Death of King Alfonso XII. of Spain, November 25.
" Accession of King Alfonso XIII. of Spain, November 26.
" Reëlection of President Grevy, of France, December 28.
1886 Gladstone's second Ministry begun, February 1.
" Chicago Anarchist riot, May 6.
" Dispute between the United States and Mexico.
" Dispute between the United States and Canada.
" Gladstone's Home Rule Bill defeated, June.
" Lord Salisbury's second Ministry begun, July 20.
" Prince Alexander of Bulgaria deposed by Russia, August.
" Earthquake at Charleston, South Carolina, August 31.
" Renewal of the Irish agrarian agitation.
" Discovery of the Rand gold mines.
" Dedication of the Statue of Liberty on Bedloe's Island, October 26.
1887 Osman Digma defeated by the Abyssinians.
" Italians defeated by the Abyssinians, February.
" Italy's annexation of Massowah.
" New Coercion Bill for Ireland.
" Jubilee Anniversary of Queen Victoria's accession, June 20.

1887 Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg elected Prince of Bulgaria, July 7.
" Centennial Anniversary of the formation of the United States Constitution at Philadelphia, September 15–17.
" Execution of the Chicago Anarchists, November 11.
" Resignation of President Grevy, December 2.
" Sadi-Carnot elected President of France, December 3.
1888 Death of Emperor William I. of Germany, March 9.
" Accession of Emperor Frederick III. in Germany, March 9.
" Death of Frederick III., June 15.
" Accession of William II., June 15.
" British Indian invasion of Thibet.
" British Indian conquest of the Black Mountain tribes.
" Reëlection of President Diaz in Mexico, July.
" Benjamin Harrison elected President of the United States, November 6.
" British-Egyptian victories over the Mahdists on the Upper Nile.
" British-Egyptian victory over the Mahdists at Suakin, December 20.
1889 Dispute between the United States and Germany about Samoa, January.
" General Boulanger's election to the French National Assembly, January 26.
" Admission of Montana, Washington, North Dakota and South Dakota into the Union, February 22.
" Inauguration of President Benjamin Harrison, March 4.
" King Milan's abdication in Servia and accession of Alexander I., March 6.
" Emin Bey's victories over the Mahdists.
" King John of Abyssinia killed in battle with the Mahdists at Metemneh, March 10.
" Persecution of General Boulanger, April.
" Centennial Anniversary of President Washington's inauguration in New York City, April 30.
" Johnstown calamity, May 31.
" Overwhelming Republican victory in the French elections, September 22.
" Overthrow of the Emperor Dom Pedro II. and establishment of the Brazilian Republic, November.
" International Exposition in Paris.
" Pan-American Congress at Washington.
" British-Portuguese dispute.
1890 Bismarck's retirement and General von Caprivi as Chancellor, March.
" French war in Dahomey.
" French victories over rebels in Tonquin, April.
" Renewal of the persecution of Russian Jews.
" Partition of Africa.
" British cession of Heligoland to Germany.
" Passage of the McKinley Tariff Act by the United States Congress.

1890 Passage of the Sherman Silver Act by the United States Congress.
" Admission of Idaho and Wyoming into the Union.
" Liberal rising in the Swiss canton of Ticino, September 11.
" Major Panitza's conspiracy in Bulgaria.
" Manipur revolt in British India, September 21.
" Death of William III., King of Holland, and accession of Queen Wilhelmina, November 23.
" War with the Sioux Indians in Nebraska and South Dakota, December.
" Sitting Bull shot dead by Indian police, December 15.
1891 Subjugation of the Sioux, January.
" Civil war in Chili begun, January.
" Egyptian victory over the Dervishes at Suakin, January 27.
" Egyptian capture of Handoub, January 28.
" Egyptian capture of Tokar and defeat of the Dervishes, February 19.
" New Orleans lynching trouble between the United States and Italy.
" Valparaiso incident difficulty between the United States and Chili.
" Alaskan seal fisheries dispute between the United States and Great Britain.
" Ex-Queen Natalie's expulsion from Servia, May.
" Switzerland's six hundredth anniversary, August 12.
" Overthrow and suicide of President Balmaceda in Chili, September.
" British suppression of the Manipur revolt in India, September 13.
" Death of ex-President Grevy, September 9.
" Suicide of General Boulanger, September 30.
" Death of Charles Stewart Parnell, October 7.
" British expansion in South Africa.
" Famine in Russia.
" Republican revolt at Oporto, Portugal, crushed.
" Portuguese troubles in Mozambique and Guinea.
" Revolt against the Portuguese in Goa, India.
" Anarchist outrages in Spain.
" Franco-Russian Alliance.
" Civil war in Brazil, November and December.
1892 Reëlection of President Porfirio Diaz in Mexico, July.
" Strike at Homestead, Pa., July.
" Anarchist outrages in Paris.
" Republican centennial in Paris, September 22.
" Gladstone's fourth Ministry begun, August 18.
" World's Fair at Madrid in honor of Columbus.
" Cleveland's second election as President, November 8.
" Panama Canal scandal and investigation in Paris, December.
1893 Trial and imprisonment of the Panama Canal directors.
" Monarchy overthrown and a republic established in Hawaii, January 19.
" President Cleveland's second inauguration, March 4.

1893 King Alexander's coup d' etat in Servia, April 13.
" World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago, May 1–October 30.
" Seal fisheries arbitration between the United States and Great Britain decided, August 15.
" Anti-silver coinage in British India.
" Manchester Ship Canal finished, June 1.
" Matabele revolt against the British in South Africa.
" Gladstone's Second Home Rule Bill rejected by the House of Lords, September 22.
" Financial panic and business depression in the United States.
" Repeal of the Sherman Silver Act.
" France's quarrel with Siam, July.
" Final overthrow of the Boulangist war party in France.
" Continued Anarchist outrages in Spain.
" Vaillant's bomb in the Chamber of Deputies, December 9.
" Other Anarchist outrages in Paris.
" Revolt under Admirals de Mello and da Gama in Brazil.
1894 Admiral Benham's bold action in Brazil, January.
" Siam's cession of territory to France, January.
" Gladstone's retirement and Lord Rosebery's succession, March.
" Dispensary troubles in South Carolina, April.
" Assassination of President Sadi-Carnot, June 24.
" Casimir-Perier elected President of France, June 27.
" Great railway strike at Chicago, July.
" Passage of the Wilson Tariff Act by the United States Congress, August.
" Admission of Utah.
" General von Caprivi succeeded by Prince Hohenlohe as Chancellor of Germany, October 26.
" Death of the Czar Alexander III., November 1.
" Accession of the Czar Nicholas II., November 2.
" Turkish massacres in Armenia.
" Spain's dispute with Morocco.
" World's Fair at Antwerp, Belgium.
" Frontier troubles in the North-west of British India.
1895 British occupation of Wazaristan and Chitral.
" Philippine and Cuban rebellions against Spain.
" Italian victory over the Abyssinians near Antola, January 13, 14.
" Resignation of President Casimir-Perier, January 16.
" Felix Faure elected President of France, January 18.
" Italian victory at Senafa and capture of Adigrat, March 25.
" Alliança trouble between Spain and the United States, March.
" Continued Turkish massacres in Armenia.
" Kongo Free State annexed to Belgium.

1895 Opening of the North Sea and Baltic Canal, June.
" Lord Salisbury's third Ministry begun, June.
" Assassination of M. Stamboloff in Bulgaria, July 15.
" Coup d' etat of the Crown Prince of Greece.
" Cotton States Exposition at Atlanta, September 18–December 18.
" French war in Senegambia.
" French war in Madagascar.
" French capture of Antananarivo, October 21.
" French protectorate over Madagascar, October 21.
" Pamir delimitation agreement between Great Britain, Afghanistan, Russia and China.
" Great Italian defeat by the Abyssinians, December.
" President Cleveland's warlike message on the British-Venezuelan boundary dispute, December 17.
" Dr. Jameson's raid into the Transvaal, December.
1896 Defeat of the Jameson raiders by the Boers, January.
" Great Italian defeat by the Abyssinians near Adown, March 1.
" French annexation of Madagascar.
" British-Ashantee war.
" British-Egyptian victories under General Kitchener over the Dervishes.
" Matabele and Mashona revolt against the British suppressed.
" The usurper in Zanzibar overthrown by a British squadron.
" Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee, June.
" British wars in Chitral and Afghanistan.
" Massacre of Armenians in Constantinople, September 6.
" Peace between Italy and Abyssinia, October 26.
" Hungary's millennial anniversary.
" William McKinley elected President of the United States, November 3.
1897 Inauguration of President McKinley, March 4.
" Græco-Turkish War, March, April and May.
" Passage of the Dingley Tariff Act by the United States Congress.
" British wars in West Africa.
" Assassination of Canovas del Castillo, Prime Minister of Spain, August 8.
" Germany's acquisition of Kiao-Chau Bay in China.
" Russia's acquisition of Port Arthur and Talienwan, China.
1898 Greater New York organized, January 1.
" Destruction of the American battleship *Maine* in Havana harbor, February 15.
" Opening of the Spanish-American War, April 21.
" American blockade of the Cuban coast, April 22.
" Bombardment of Matanzas, April 27.
" Naval battle of Manila Bay, May 1.
" American invasion of Cuba, May.

1898 Fight at Cardenas, May 11.
" Fight at Cuenfuegos, May 11.
" Bombardment of San Juan, Porto Rico, May 12.
" Gladstone's death, May 19.
" Bombardment of Santiago harbor forts, May 31.
" Hobson's bold exploit, June 3.
" Renewed bombardment of Santiago harbor forts, June 7.
" Skirmish at Guantanamo, June 10.
" General Shafter's invasion of Cuba, June 22–24.
" Battle of La Quisanas, June 24.
" Land battle of Santiago, July 1–3.
" Naval battle of Santiago harbor, July 3.
" Surrender of Santiago, July 14.
" American occupation of Santiago, July 17.
" Capture of Nipe, July 21.
" Bismarck's death, July 30.
" American conquest of Porto Rico, July and August.
" American invasion of the Philippines, May–August.
" Spanish repulse at Manila, July 31.
" Peace protocol signed at Washington, August 12.
" Annexation of Hawaii to the United States, August 12.
" Capture of Manila, August 13.
" British-Egyptian victory by General Kitchener over the Khalifa at Omdurman, September 2.
" Assassination of the Empress Elizabeth of Austria, September 4.
" Anglo-French dispute over the Fashoda incident, October–December.
" Chippewa Indian rising in Minnesota, October.
" The case of Captain Dreyfus agitated in France.
" Definitive Peace of Paris between Spain and the United States, December 10.
1899 Spanish retirement from Cuba, January 1.
" Filipino rising against the Americans, February 4.
" Three days' battle at Manila, February 4–6.
" Bombardment and capture of Iloilo, February 11.
" Death of President Faure of France, February 16.
" Emile Loubet elected President of France, February 17.
" Burning of Manila, February 22.
" Capture of Malolos, March 31.
" British and American bombardment of Samoan villages, March and April.
" Capture of Calumpit, in the Philippines, April 27.
" Capture of San Fernando, May 5.
" Bloemfontein Conference for the settlement of the British-Boer dispute, May.

1899 General Lawton's victories in the Philippines, June.
" Plot against King Alexander of Servia.
" Disarmament proposal of the Czar Nicholas II.
" The Hague Peace Conference.
" Russification of Finland.
" Reopening of the Dreyfus case.
" Second trial and conviction of Captain Dreyfus.
" Boer ultimatum and opening of the British-Boer War, October 9–11.
" Boer invasion of Cape Colony and Natal, October 11.
" Battle of Glencoe, October 20.
" Battle of Elandslaagte, October 21.
" Sieges of Kimberley, Mafeking and Ladysmith.
" Battle of San Jacinto, in the Philippines, November 4.
" Battle of Belmont, South Africa, November 22, 23.
" Battle of Graspan, November 25.
" Battle of the Modder River, November 28.
" Final overthrow of the Khalifa at Gedid by the British, November 29.
" Battle of Stormberg Junction, December 10.
" Battle of Magersfontein, December 11.
" Battle of Colenso, December 15.
" Death of General Lawton in the Philippines, December 19.
1900 Battles of Colesburg and Sunnyside, South Africa, January 1.
" Generals Wheaton's and Schwan's successes, January.
" Beginning of Guerrilla warfare in the Philippines January.
" Boer repulse at Ladysmith, January 6.
" British repulse at Spion Kop, January 23, 24.
" British repulse at Vaal Krantz, February 5–8.
" Relief of Kimberley, February 14.
" Battles around Paardeburg, February 18–27.
" Conje's surrender to Lord Roberts, February 27.
" Capture of Pieter's Hill, February 27.
" Relief of Ladysmith, February 28.
" Capture of Bloemfontein, March 13.
" Siege and relief of Wepener, March and April.
" Relief of Mafeking, May 17.
" Occupation of Johannesburg by Lord Roberts, May 31.
" Occupation of Pretoria by Lord Roberts, June 5.
" Boer guerrilla warfare begun, June 15.
" Fifth British-Ashantee war.
" Boxer outbreak in China and siege of the foreign legations at Pekin, June–August.
" Murder of Baron von Ketteler, Germany's Minister in Pekin, June 20.
" German expedition to China.

1900 Assassination of King Humbert of Italy, July 29.
" Accession of Victor Emmanuel III. as King of Italy, July 30.
" International Exposition at Paris.
" Rescue of the besieged legations by the forces of Great Britain, France, Russian, Japan and the United States, August 14.
" Commonweath of Australia established.
" British Ministry sustained by the Parliamentary elections, September.
" Russian occupation of Manchuria.
" Prince Hohenlohe succeeded as German Chancellor by Count von Bülow, October.
" Reëlection of President McKinley, November 6.
1901 Death of Queen Victoria, January 22.
" Accession of Edward VII. as King of Great Britain and Ireland and Emperor of India, January 23.
" Queen Victoria's funeral, February 2.
" President McKinley's inauguration, March 4.
" Capture of Aguinaldo, March 23.
" Death of the Dowager Empress Victoria of Germany, August 6.
" Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo, May–October.
" Bellarmino's surrender, July 4.
" President McKinley shot by Leon Czolgosz, September 6.
" Death of President McKinley, September 14.
" Vice President Roosevelt sworn in as President, September 14.
" Pan-American Congress in the city of Mexico.
" British war with the Mad Mullah of Somaliland.
" Outbreaks in Russian cities.
" Finland's extinction.
" Servia's new constitution.
1902 Students' riots in Moscow and St. Petersburg.
" Malvar's surrender, April 16.
" Moro revolt.
" Pacification of the Philippines.
" Exposition at Charleston, South Carolina.
" Cuban Republic established, May 20.
" Volcanic eruptions in the island of Martinique, May.
" Coronation of King Alfonso XIII. of Spain, May 17.
" Isthmian Canal Bill passed by the United States Congress, June.
" Arbitrary rule of King Alexander of Servia.
" Anti-Turkish revolts in Macedonia and Albania, July.
" Lord Salisbury's retirement and Balfour's succession, July 13.
" Fall of the Campanile at Venice, July 14.
" British victories over the Mad Mullah of Somaliland.
" Anthracite coal strike in Pennsylvania.

1903 Usurpation of King Alexander of Servia.
" Assassination of King Alexander and Queen Draga of Servia, June 11.
" Death of Pope Leo XIII., July 20.
" Election of Pope Pius X., August 4.
1904 Russo-Japanese War begun, February 8.
" Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis, April 30-September.
" Battle near Port Arthur, July.
" British Indian occupation of Lassa, Thibet, August.
" Reëlection of President Roosevelt, November 8.
" German war in South-west Africa.
1905 Fall of Port Arthur, January 2.
" President Roosevelt's second inauguration, March 4.
" Great Japanese naval victory in the China Sea, May 27, 28.
" Dissolution of the union of Sweden and Norway, June 7.
" Peace of Portsmouth, September 5.
" Prince Charles of Denmark elected King of Norway as Hakon VII., November.
1906 Christian IX. of Denmark died; succeeded by Frederick VIII., January.
" San Francisco wrecked by an earthquake, April 18.
" Election Disputes in Cuba; United States assumed control, September.
" First parliament of Persia opened, September 12.
1907 Church and State Separation Law promulgated in France, January.
" Emperor of Korea abdicated, July 19.
1908 Carlos of Portugal assassinated; succeeded by Manuel II., February.
" Constitution of 1876 restored in Turkey and parliament granted, July 24.
" William H. Taft elected President of the United States, November 3.
" Pu-Yi became Emperor of China under name of Hsuan Tung in December.
1909 Commander Robert E. Peary, of the United States Navy, discovered the North Pole, April 6.
" Revolution in Turkey in April. Sultan Abdul Hamid deposed. Mehmed V. succeeded.
" Albert I. became King of Belgium upon death of King Leopold, December 23.
1910 Death of Edward VII., King of Great Britain and Ireland, May 6. George V. succeeded.
" Federation of British Colonies in South Africa proclaimed May 31.
1911 Arizona and New Mexico admitted to statehood in August.
" Roald Amundsen discovered South Pole in December.
" Revolution in China in September.
1912 Abdication of Chinese Emperor, Pu Yi, and Manchu dynasty ended February.
" Woman suffrage granted in China March 20.
" Chinese Republic declared March 29.

1912 Frederick VIII., King of Denmark, died May 14. Succeeded by Christian X.
" Mutsuhito, Emperor of Japan, died July 30. Prince Yoshihito succeeded.
" Balkan War began October 8.
" Woodrow Wilson elected President United States, November 5.
1913 Parcels Post began in United States, January 1.
" Peace treaty signed by Turkey and Balkan nations, August 10.
" Underwood-Simmons Tariff Bill went into effect in United States, October.
" Panama Canal completed at cost of $375,000,000, November 17.
" Currency Bill passed in United States, December.
1914 German troops enter Belgium, August 3.
" Great Britain declares war on Germany, August 4.
" Austria-Hungary declares war on Russia, August 6.
" Brussels captured by the Germans, August 20.
" Battles of Mons and Charleroi, August 21-23.
" Russian victories in Galicia, August and September.
" Russian defeat at Tannenberg, August 26-29.
" French government goes to Bordeaux, August 23.
" Battle of the Marne, September 6-10.
" Antwerp taken, October 9.
" First battle of Flanders, October-November.
" Turkey attacks Russia, October 29.
" Battle off Coronel, November 1.
" Kiao-Chau surrenders to Japanese, November 6.
" Germans capture Lodz, December 6.
" Battle of the Falkland Islands, December 8.
" General von Falkenhayn succeeds General von Moltke as head of the German General Staff, December 10.
" Servian victory at Kosmai, December 10.
" Servians recapture Belgrade, December 14.
" Germans bombard English coast towns, December 16.
" Germans held thirty miles from Warsaw, December 19.
1915 British battleship *Formidable* sunk by torpedo, January 1.
" German victory near Soissons, January 14.
" German cruiser *Bluecher* sunk, January 24.
" French and British fleet shell the forts of the Dardanelles, February 2.
" Germany announces unlimited submarine warfare against merchantmen, February 4.
" American protest against German submarine warfare, February 10.
" Allied fleet silences forts at the entrance to the Dardanelles, February 25.
" Battle of Neuve-Chapelle, March 11.
" Russians capture Przemysl, March 22.
" American drowned in the sinking of the *Falaba*, March 28.

1915 Germans use poison gas before Ypres, April 22.
" Allied forces land on Gallipoli Peninsula, April 28.
" American steamer *Gulf Light* sunk by submarine, May 1.
" Teutons begin great drive in Galicia, May 2.
" *Lusitania* sunk by German submarine, May 7.
" Wilson's first note of protest, May 13.
" Italy declares war on Austria, May 24.
" German reply to American note, May 29.
" Wilson's second note to Germany, June 7.
" Germans' second reply to Wilson, July 8.
" Wilson's third note to Germany, July 22.
" Warsaw taken by the Germans, August 5.
" Kovno taken by the Germans, August 17.
" Liner *Arabic* torpedoed and sunk, August 19.
" Brest-Litovsk taken by the Germans, August 26.
" Germans make concessions to the United States, September 1.
" Recall of Ambassador Dumba demanded by Wilson, September 9.
" Great Anglo-French offensive begun in Champagne and about Lens, September 25.
" Kut-el-Amara captured by the British, September 27.
" Allied troops land at Salonica, October 3.
" Bulgaria enters the war, October 5.
" Premier Venizelos forced from Greek Cabinet, October 6.
" Belgrade captured, October 9.
" Servia overrun, October-December.
" Briand succeeds Viviani as French Premier, October 28.
" Battle of Ctesiphon near Bagdad, November 22.
" Gallipoli partly evacuated, December 2.
" General Haig succeeds General French in command of British forces on Western Front, December 15.
1916 Final evacuation of Gallipoli Peninsula, January 9.
" Austrians occupy Montenegro, January.
" Russians capture Erzerum, February 16.
" Great drive against Verdun begins, February 21.
" The *Sussex* torpedoed, March 24.
" Germans take Vaux, March 31.
" Irish revolt, April 24.
" Kut-el-Amara surrenders to the Turks, April 28.
" Germany makes promises to observe international law in regard to submarine warfare, May 4.

1916 British Draft Law goes into effect, May 25.
" Bulgarians invade eastern Greece, May 26.
" Great naval battle off Jutland, May 31.
" Brussilov begins a great offensive, June 4.
" Kitchener goes down with the cruiser *Hampshire*, June 5.
" Dubno captured by the Russians, June 10.
" British begin great Somme drive, July 1.
" Captain Fryatt executed by the Germans, July 28.
" Sir Roger Casement hanged, August 3.
" Italians capture Goritzia, August 9.
" Roumania enters the war, August 28.
" Tanks used for the first time, September 15.
" Von Hindenburg succeeds von Falkenhayn as Chief of the General Staff, August 30.
" Allies bring pressure to bear upon Greece, October 17.
" Emperor Francis Joseph dies, November 21.
" Lloyd George becomes British Premier, December 6.
" Bucharest captured by the Germans, December 6.
" President Wilson makes "peace soundings," December 20.
1917 President Wilson speaks before the Senate on peace, January 22.
" Germany makes announcement of renewed submarine warfare against merchantmen, January 31.
" United States breaks diplomatic relations with Germany, February 3.
" Kut-el-Amara retaken by the British, February 26.
" British take Bagdad, March 11.
" Czar Nicholas deposed, March 11.
" United States declares war on Germany, April 6.
" Great British drive begins, April 9.
" French drive begins, April 16.
" Registration in the United States, June 5.
" General Pershing reaches England, June 8.
" Russian drive begins, July 1.
" Italians capture Monte San Gabriele, September 4.
" British offensive in Flanders, June to November.
" Teutons begin drive against Italy, October 24.
" Brazil declares war against Germany, October 26.
" American artillery fires first shot, October 28.
" Bolshevists capture Petrograd, November 7.
" General Cadorna succeeded by General Diaz, November 8.
" Clemenceau becomes Premier of France, November 15.
" Battle of the Tanks, November 24.
" Jerusalem captured by the British, December 8.

1917 The United States declares war on Austria-Hungary, December 11.
" Armistice signed between Germany and Russia at Brest-Litovsk, December 15.
1918 President Wilson announces his "Fourteen Points," January 8.
" Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, March 3.
" Treaty of Bucharest, March 5.
" Germany begins Kaiser's Battle, March 21.
" Foch made Allied Commander-in-Chief, March 27.
" German drive begins in Flanders, April 9.
" Germans begin their third drive, May 27.
" Cantigny taken by Americans, May 28.
" American troops fight Germans at Chateau-Thierry, June 3-6.
" Last German drive begins, July 15.
1918 Allied counter-attack, July 18.
" British win great victory in Picardy, August 8.
" Americans capture St. Mihiel salient, September 12-13.
" Bulgaria defeated and signs an armistice, September.
" British destroy Turkish army in Palestine, September.
" Battle of the Hindenburg Line begins, September 26.
" Damascus taken by the British, October 5.
" German Chancellor asks for an armistice, October 5.
" Lille entered by the British, October 16.
" Italians begin great drive, October 24.
" Turkey surrenders, October 31.
" Austria signs an armistice, November 3.
" American Rainbow Division reaches Sedan, November 8.
" Canadians take Mons, November 10.
" Armistice signed and goes into effect, November 11.
" Republican victories in Congressional elections, November 5.
" Coalition wins in British election, December.
" Wilson leaves for the Peace Conference, December 4.
1919 Theodore Roosevelt dies, January 6.
" Peace Conference meets, January 18.
" German National Assembly at Weimar, February 6.
" American seaplanes fly from Newfoundland to the Azores, May 16-17.
" Germans sign Peace Treaty, June 28.
" Alcock and Brown fly in an airplane from Newfoundland to Ireland, June 14-15.
" Contest in America over League of Nations.
" President Wilson ill.

1920 League of Nations Council and Assembly held first meetings.
" Rebellion in Ireland.
" Millerand elected President of France.
" Constantine again King of Greece.
" General Wrangel beaten by the Bolshevists.
" Russian invasion of Poland defeated.
" Treaty of Sevres signed by Turkey.
" Harding elected President of the United States.
1921 Second Simplon tunnel completed.
" Irish Free State established.
" Alexander I. King of Jugo-slavia.
" Fascisti begin movement against Socialists.
" Gandhi leads non-co-operation movement against British in India.
" Limitation of Armaments Conference meets at Washington.
1922 Climbers get within 1700 feet of the top of Mt. Everest but perish.
" First meeting of Permanent Court of International Justice.
" Peace treaties between the United States, Germany, Austria and Hungary.
" Greeks beaten by the Turks.
" Constantine abdicates and his son succeeds him as George II.
" Fascisti seize control in Italy.
" Pope Benedict V. dies and is succeeded by Cardinal Ratti as Pius XI.
" Famine in Russia.
" Civil war in China.
" Turkish National Assembly at Angora deposes the Sultan and elects a new Caliph.
" Premier Lloyd George resigns and is succeeded by Bonar Law.
" Lausanne Conference.
" Discovery of the tomb of Tutankhamen.
1923 Debt funding agreement between the United States and Great Britain.
" Bonar Law succeeded by Stanley Baldwin.
" Opposition to Irish Free State collapses.
" France and Belgium seize the Ruhr.
" Little Entente formed.
" Death of President Harding.
" Coolidge becomes President.
" Great earthquake in Japan.
1924 Alliance between France and Czecho-Slovakia, January 25.
" Coolidge elected President.
" New immigration act passed by Congress.
" Death of Lenine, February 21.

1925 Outbreak in Syria against the French.
" Conservatives win election in England.
" Hindenburg President of Germany.
" Locarno Pact.
" Clash between Greeks and Bulgars.
1926 United States Senate votes to join Permanent Court of International Arbitration, January 27.

SOVEREIGNS AND RULERS OF MODERN NATIONS.

THE POPES.

A. D.
42 St. Peter (crucified).
66 St. Clement I.
78 St. Cletus (martyred).
91 St. Clement II. (abdicated).
100 St. Evaristus (martyred).
109 St. Alexander I. (martyred).
119 St. Sixtus I. (martyred).
127 St. Telesphorus (martyred).
139 St. Hyginus.
142 St. Pius I. (martyred).
157 St. Anicetus.
168 St. Soterus (martyred).
177 St. Eleutherius.
193 St. Victor I. (martyred).
202 St. Zephyrinus.
219 St. Calixtus I. (martyred).
222 A Vacancy.
223 St. Urban I. (beheaded).
230 St. Pontianus (banished).
235 St. Anterus (martyred).
236 St. Fabian (martyred).
250 A Vacancy.
251 St. Cornelius.
252 St. Lucius I. (martyred).
253 St. Stephen I. (martyred).
257 St. Sixtus II. (martyred).
258 A Vacancy.
259 St. Dionysius.
269 St. Felix I. (died in prison).
275 St. Eutychianus.
283 St. Caius.
296 St. Marcellinus.
304 A Vacancy.
308 St. Marcellus (banished).
310 St. Eusebius.
311 St. Milchiades.
314 St. Sylvester I.

A. D.
336 St. Marcus.
337 St. Julius I.
352 Liberius (banished).
355 Felix II., anti-pope.
358 Liberius restored.
358 Felix II. again.
359 Liberius again (martyred).
366 St. Damasus I.
367 Ursinus (banished).
384 Siricius.
398 St. Anastasius I.
402 St. Innocent I.
417 St. Zozimus.
418 St. Boniface I.
422 St. Celestine.
432 Sixtus III.
440 St. Leo I. the Great.
461 St. Hilary.
468 St. Simplicius.
483 St. Felix III.
492 St. Gelasius I.
496 St. Athanasius II.
498 Symmachus.
498 Laurentius, anti-pope.
514 Hormisdas.
523 John I.
526 Felix IV.
530 Boniface II.
533 John II.
535 Agapetus I.
536 St. Silverius (banished).
537 Vigilius.
555 Pelagius I.
560 John III.
573 A Vacancy.
574 Benedict I.
578 Pelagius II.

590 St. Gregory I. the Great.
604 Sabinianus.
606 Boniface III.
607 Boniface IV.
614 St. Deusdedit.
617 Boniface V.
625 Honorius I.
639 A Vacancy.
640 Severinus.
640 John IV.
642 Theodorus I.
649 Martin I.
654 Eugenius I.
657 Vitalianus.
672 Adeodatus.
676 Domnus I.
678 St. Agathon.
682 St. Leo II.
683 A Vacancy.
684 Benedict II.
685 John V.
686 Conon.
687 Sergius I.
701 John VI.
705 John VII.
708 Sisinnius.
708 Constantine.
715 St. Gregory II.
731 Gregory III.
741 St. Zacharias.
752 Stephen II. (beginning of Pope's temporal power).
757 Paul I.
768 Stephen III.
772 Adrian I.
795 Leo III. (crowned Charlemagne).
816 Stephen IV.
817 Pascal I.
824 Eugenius II.
827 Valentine.
828 Gregory IV.
844 Sergius II.
847 Leo IV.
855 Benedict III.
855 Athanasius, anti-pope.
858 Nicholas I. the Great.
867 Adrian II.
872 John VIII.
882 Martin II.
884 Adrian III.
885 Stephen V.
891 Formosus (detested, corpse cast into Tiber).
896 Boniface VI. (deposed).
897 Stephen VI. (strangled in prison).
897 Romanus, anti-pope.
898 Theodore II.
898 John IX.
900 Benedict IV.
903 Leo V. (died in prison).
903 Christopher.
904 Sergius III. (immoral).
911 Anastasius III.
913 Landonius, or Lando.
914 John X. (stifled to death).
928 Leo VI.
929 Stephen VII.
931 John XI. (died a prisoner in St. Angelo Castle).
936 Leo VII. (zealous and pious).
939 Stephen VIII. (of fierce character).
942 Martin III.
946 Agapetus II. (of holy life).
956 John XII. (infamous, murdered).
963 Leo VIII.
964 Benedict V.
965 John XIII.
972 Benedict VI. (murdered in prison).
974 Domnus II.
974 Boniface VII.
975 Benedict VII.
983 John XIV.
984 John XV.
985 John XVI.
996 Gregory V.
999 Sylvester II.
1003 John XVII.
1003 John XVIII. (abdicated).
1009 Sergius IV.
1012 Benedict VIII.
1024 John XIX. (bought papacy).
1033 Benedict IX. (Pope at 12 years, deposed).
1044 Gregory VI. (abdicated).
1046 Clement II.
1047 Benedict IX. restored.
1048 Damasus II.
1048 St. Leo IX.
1054 A Vacancy.
1055 Victor II.
1057 Stephen IX.
1058 Benedict X.
1058 Nicholas II.
1061 Alexander II.
1073 Gregory VII. (Hildebrand)—ablest Pope.
1085 A Vacancy.
1086 Victor III.
1088 Urban II.
1099 Pascal II.
1118 Gelasius II. (became a monk).
1119 Calixtus II.
1124 Honorius II.
1130 Innocent II.

1138 Victor III., (Anacletus II. anti-pope).
1143 Celestine II.
1144 Lucius II.
1145 Eugenius III.
1153 Anastasius IV.
1154 Adrian IV. (Nicholas Breakspeare, an Englishman).
1159 Alexander III.
1181 Lucius III.
1185 Urban III.
1187 Gregory VIII.
1187 Clement III.
1191 Celestine III.
1198 Innocent III. (able Pope).
1216 Honorius III.
1227 Gregory IX.
1241 Celestine IV.
1241 A Vacancy.
1243 Innocent IV.
1254 Alexander IV.
1261 Urban IV.
1265 Clement IV.
1268 A Vacancy.
1271 Gregory X.
1276 Innocent V.
1276 Adrian V.
1276 Vicedominus (died next day).
1276 John XX. or XXI.
1277 Nicholas III.
1281 Martin IV.
1285 Honorius IV.
1288 Nicholas IV.
1292 A Vacancy.
1294 St. Celestine V. (resigned).
1294 Boniface VIII. (able Pope).
1303 Benedict XI. (poisoned).
1304 A Vacancy.
1305 Clement V. (first Pope at Avignon).
1314 A Vacancy.
1316 John XXII.
1334 Benedict XII. (Nicholas V. anti-pope at Rome).
1342 Clement VI.
1352 Innocent VI.
1362 Urban V.
1370 Gregory XI. (restores papal residence to Rome).
1378 Urban VI. (His severity caused Robert of Geneva to be elected as Clement VII).
1378 Clement VII., anti-pope.
1389 Boniface IX.
1394 Benedict XIII. (anti-pope at Avignon).
1404 Innocent VII.
1406 Gregory XII., anti-pope.
1409 Alexander V. (poisoned).
1410 John XXIII. (deposed).
1417 Martin V.
1424 Clement VIII. (resigned 1429).
1431 Eugenius IV. (deposed by Council of Basle).
1439 Felix V., anti-pope (resigned in 1449).
1447 Nicholas V.
1455 Calixtus III.
1458 Pius II. (Æneas Silvius).
1464 Paul II.
1471 Sixtus IV.
1484 Innocent VIII.
1492 Alexander VI. (worst of Popes).
1503 Pius III.
1503 Julius II. (warlike Pope).
1513 Leo X. (John de Medici).
1522 Adrian VI.
1523 Clement VII. (Julius de Medici).
1534 Paul III.
1550 Julius III.
1555 Marcellus II.
1555 Paul IV.
1559 Pius IV. (Cardinal de Medici).
1566 St. Pius V.
1572 Gregory XIII. (reformed calendar).
1585 Sixtus V. (able ruler).
1590 Urban VII. (died in 12 days).
1590 Gregory XIV.
1591 Innocent IX.
1592 Clement VIII.
1605 Leo XI.
1605 Paul V.
1621 Gregory XV.
1623 Urban VIII.
1644 Innocent X.
1655 Alexander VII.
1667 Clement IX.
1670 Clement X.
1676 Innocent XI.
1689 Alexander VIII.
1691 Innocent XII.
1700 Clement XI.
1721 Innocent XIII.
1724 Benedict XIII.
1730 Clement XII.
1740 Benedict XIV.
1758 Clement XIII.
1769 Clement XIV.
1775 Pius VI.
1800 Pius VII.
1823 Leo XII.
1829 Pius VIII.
1831 Gregory XVI.
1846 Pius IX.
1878 Leo XIII.
1903 Pius X.
1914 Benedict XV.
1922 Pius X.

KINGS AND QUEENS OF ENGLAND.

Anglo-Saxon Kings.

A. D.
827 Egbert.
838 Ethelwolf.
857 Ethelbald.
860 Ethelbert.
866 Ethelred I.
871 Alfred the Great.
901 Edward the Elder.
925 Athelstan.
940 Edmund I.
946 Edred.
955 Edwy.
959 Edgar.
975 Edward the Martyr.
978 Ethelred II.
1016 Edmund Ironside.

Danish Kings.

1017 Canute the Great (of Denmark).
1036 Harold Harefoot.
1039 Hardicanute (of Denmark).

Saxon Kings.

1041 Edward the Confessor.
1066 Harold.

Norman Kings.

1066 William the Conqueror (Duke of Normandy).
1087 William Rufus.
1100 Henry I. (Beauclerc).
1135 Stephen (Count of Blois). } Dukes of Normandy.

The Plantagenets.

1154 Henry II. (Earl of Anjou).
1189 Richard the Lion-hearted.
1199 John. } Dukes of Normandy.
1216 Henry III.
1272 Edward I.
1307 Edward II.
1327 Edward III.
1377 Richard II.
1399 Henry IV.
1413 Henry V. } House of Lancaster.
1422 Henry VI.
1461 Edward IV.
1483 Edward V. } House of York.
1483 Richard III.

The Tudors.

1485 Henry VII.
1509 Henry VIII.
1547 Edward VI.
1553 Mary I.
1558 Elizabeth.

The Stuarts.—Kings of England and Scotland.

1603 James I. (James VI. of Scotland).
1625 Charles I. (beheaded 1649).
1649 The Commonwealth (Oliver Cromwell, Lord Protector, 1653; Richard Cromwell, 1658).
1660 Charles II.
1685 James II. (James VII. of Scotland), deposed 1688.
1689 William III. and Mary II. (William of Orange, Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic).
1702 Anne (England and Scotland united in 1707).

House of Brunswick.—Kings of Great Britain.

1714 George I.
1727 George II.
1760 George III. } Electors of Hanover.
1820 George IV.
1830 William IV. } Kings of Hanover.
1837 Victoria. ("Empress of India").
1901 Edward VII. ("Emperor of India").
1910 George V.

KINGS AND QUEENS OF SCOTLAND.

Dynasty of Kenneth.

A. D.
843 Kenneth MacAlpine (first King of all Scotland).
854 Donald V.
858 Constantine II.
874 Ethus.
876 Gregory the Great.
893 Donald VI.
904 Constantine III.
944 Malcolm I.
953 Induff.
961 Duff.
965 Cullen.
970 Kenneth III.
994 Constantine IV.
995 Kenneth the Grim.

1003 Malcolm II.
1033 Duncan I.
1039 Macbeth.
1057 Malcolm III., Canmore.
1093 Donald VII., or Donald Bane (deposed).
1094 Duncan II.
1094 Donald VII. (restored and deposed).
1098 Edgar.
1107 Alexander I., the Fierce.
1124 David I.
1153 Malcolm IV.
1165 William the Lion.
1214 Alexander II.
1249 Alexander III.
1285 Margaret (the "Maid of Norway").

Houses of Baliol and Bruce.

1292 John Baliol (deposed by Edward I. of England).
1296 Edward I. of England.
1306 Robert Bruce.
1329 David Rruce (driven away).
1332 Edward Baliol.
1342 David Bruce restored.

House of Stuart.

1371 Robert II.
1390 Robert III.
1406 An Interregnum.
1424 James I. (murdered).
1437 James II.
1460 James III. (murdered).
1488 James IV. (killed at Flodden).
1513 James V.
1542 Mary (beheaded in England in 1587).
1567 James VI. (became James I. of England in 1603).
1625 Charles I. (also King of England, beheaded in 1649).
1649 Under Commonwealth of England.
1660 Charles II. (also King of England).
1685 James II (James II. of England, deposed in 1689).
1689 William and Mary.
1702 Anne.
1707 Union of Scotland and England.

KINGS, EMPERORS AND PRESIDENTS OF FRANCE.

Merovingian Kings.

A. D.
481 Clovis.
511 Childebert I. } Kingdom Divided.
Clodimir.
Thierry I.
Clotaire I.
534 Theodebert I.
548 Theodebald.
558 Clotaire I. sole king.
561 Charibert. } Kingdom Divided.
Gontram.
Sigebert I.
Chilperic I.
575 Childebert II.
584 Clotaire II.
596 Thierry II. } Jointly.
Theodebert II.
613 Clotaire II. sole king.
628 Dagobert I., the Great.
638 Clovis II. } Jointly.
Sigebert II.
656 Clotaire III.
670 Childeric II.
670 Thierry III.
674 Dagobert II.
691 Clovis III. } Pepin d'Heristal, Mayor of the Palace.
695 Childebert III., the Just.

A. D.
711 Dagobert III. } Charles Martel, Mayor of the Palace.
715 Chilperic II. (deposed).
717 Clotaire IV.
720 Chilperic II. restored.
720 Thierry IV.
737 An Interregnum.
742 Childeric III., the Stupid, (deposed in 751 by Pepin the Little, son of Charles Martel).

Carlovingian Kings.

751 Pepin the Little (son of Charles Martel).
768 Charlemagne, or Charles the Great (and Carloman until 771).
814 Louis le Debonnaire.
840 Charles the Bald.
877 Louis II., the Stammerer.
879 Louis III. and Carloman II.
884 Charles III. (usurper).
887 Hugh, or Eudes, Count of Paris.
898 Charles the Simple.
922 Robert.
923 Raoul, or Rudolf.
936 Louis IV., d'Outremer.
954 Lothaire.

986 Louis V., the Sluggard (deposed in 987 by Hugh Capet).

House of Capet.

987 Hugh Capet.
997 Robert the Pious.
1031 Henry I.
1060 Philip I.
1108 Louis VI., the Fat.
1137 Louis VII.
1180 Philip Augustus.
1223 Louis VIII., the Lion.
1226 Louis IX., or St. Louis.
1270 Philip the Hardy.
1285 Philip the Fair.
1314 Louis X.
1316 Philip the Tall.
1321 Charles the Fair.

House of Valois.

1328 Philip of Valois.
1350 John the Good.
1364 Charles V., the Wise.
1380 Charles VI.
1422 Charles VII., the Victorious.
1461 Louis XI.
1483 Charles VIII., the Affable and Courteous.
1498 Louis XII., the Father of his People.
1515 Francis I.
1547 Henry II.
1559 Francis II.
1560 Charles IX.
1574 Henry III.

House of Bourbon.

1589 Henry IV. (Henry III. of Navarre).
1610 Louis XIII.
1643 Louis XIV.
1715 Louis XV.
1774 Louis XVI. (beheaded 1793).

The First Republic.

1792 National Convention.
1795 Directory.
1799 Napoleon Bonaparte, First Consul.

The First Empire.

1804 Napoleon I. (Bonaparte).

The First Bourbon Restoration.

1814 Louis XVIII.

The Hundred Days.

1815 Napoleon I. restored.

The Second Bourbon Restoration.

1815 Louis XVIII. restored.
1824 Charles X.

House of Orleans.

1830 Louis Philippe.

Second Republic.

1848 Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, President.

Second Empire.

1852 Napoleon III. (Louis Napoleon).

Third Republic.

1870 Provisional Government.
1871 Louis Adolphe Thiers, President.
1873 Maurice MacMahon, President.
1879 Jules Grevy, President.
1888 Sadi Carnot, President
1894 Casimir Perier, President.
1895 Felix Faure, President.
1899 Emile Loubet, President.
1906 M. Fallieres, President.
1913 Raymond Poincarè, President.
1920 Paul Deschanel.
1921 Alexander Millerand.
1924 Gaston Doumerque.

GERMAN RULERS.

Carlovingians.

A. D.
800 Charlemagne.
814 Louis le Debonnaire.
840 Lothaire.
855 Louis the German.
875 Charles the Bald (King of France).
877 An Interregnum.
880 Charles the Fat (deposed).
887 Arnulf.
898 Louis the Blind.
898 Louis the Child (deposed).

House of Franconia.

911 Conrad I.

House of Saxony.

919 Henry the Fowler.

A. D.
936 Otho the Great.
973 Otho II.
983 Otho III.
1002 Henry II., the Saint (of Bavaria).

House of Franconia.

1024 Conrad II.
1039 Henry III.
1056 Henry IV.
1106 Henry V.

House of Saxony.

1125 Lothaire.

The Hohenstaufen.

1138 Conrad III.
1152 Frederick Barbarossa.

1190 Henry VI.
1197 Otho IV. and Philip of Swabia.
1218 Frederick II.
1250 An Interregnum of 23 years.

Different Dynasties.

1273 Rudolf of Hapsburg.
1291 Adolf of Nassau.
1298 Albert I. of Austria (Hapsburg).
1308 Henry VII. (of the House of Luxemburg).
1313 Louis of Bavaria and Frederick the Fair of Austria.
1330 Louis of Bavaria alone.
1347 Charles IV. } Kings of Bohemia.
1378 Wenceslas. }
1400 Rupert of the Palatinate.
1410 Sigismund (King of Hungary and Bohemia).

Austrian House of Hapsburg.

1438 Albert II., of Austria.
1440 Frederick III.
1493 Maximilian I. (first Archduke of Austria).
1519 Charles V. (Charles I. of Spain).
1556 Ferdinand I. } Archdukes of Austria, and Kings of Hungary and Bohemia.
1564 Maximilian II.
1576 Rudolf II.
1612 Matthias.
1619 Ferdinand II.
1637 Ferdinand III.
1657 Leopold I.
1705 Joseph I.
1711 Charles VI.
1740 An Interregnum.

House of Bavaria.

1741 Charles VII.

Austrian House of Hapsburg-Lorraine.

1745 Francis I. } Kings of Hungary and Bohemia.
1765 Joseph II.
1790 Leopold II.
1792 Francis II. (until 1806).
1806 *Confederation of the Rhine.*
1815 *Germanic Confederation.*
1867 *North German Confederation.*

House of Hohenzollern.

1871 William I. } Kings of Prussia.
1888 Frederick.
1888 William II.

Republic, 1918

1919 Frederick Ebert, President.
1925 Paul von Hindenburg, President.

DUKES, ARCHDUKES AND EMPERORS OF AUSTRIA.

Margraves of Austria.

A. D.
928 Leopold I., the Illustrious.
973 Henry I., the Rebel.
1018 Albert I., the Victorious.
1056 Ernest the Valiant.
1075 Leopold II., the Beautiful.
1096 Leopold III.
1136 Albert II.
1136 Leopold IV., the Saint.
1140 Leopold V., the Liberal.
1142 Henry II.

Dukes of Austria.

1156 Henry II. (as Duke).
1177 Leopold VI., the Virtuous.
1194 Frederick I., the Catholic.
1198 Leopold VII., the Glorious.
1230 Frederick II., the Warlike.
1246 An Interregnum.

Austrian Dukes—House of Hapsburg.

1278 Rudolf I. (of Hapsburg).
1282 Albert I.
1305 Rudolf II.
1308 Frederick III., the Fair, and Leopold I.
1326 Frederick III. alone.
A. D.
1330 Albert II. the Wise, and Otho.
1339 Albert II. alone.
1358 Rudolf III.
1365 Albert III. and Leopold III.
1386 An Interregnum.
1395 William I. and his brothers and cousin Albert IV., the Wonder.
1411 Albert V., the Severe.
1437 Albert VI. (Emperor Albert II. of Germany).
1439 Ladislas.
1457 Frederick IV. (Frederick III. of Germany), and Albert VI.

Austrian Archdukes—House of Hapsburg.

1493 Maximilian I. (German Emperor).
1519 Charles I. (Emperor Charles V. of Germany).
1521 Ferdinand I. } Emperors of Germany.
1664 Maximilian II. }
1576 Rudolf I. (Emperor Rudolf II).
1608 Matthias. } Emperors of Germany.
1619 Ferdinand II.
1637 Ferdinand III.
1657 Leopold I.
1705 Joseph I.

1711 Charles II. (Emperor Charles VI. of Germany).
1740 Maria Theresa.
1780 Joseph II. } Emperors of Germany.
1790 Leopold II }
1792 Francis I. (Francis II. of Germany).

Emperors of Austria—House of Hapsburg-Lorraine.

1804 Francis I. (Francis II. of Germany from 1792 to 1806).
1835 Ferdinand I.
1848 Francis Joseph.
1916 Charles I (deposed 1918).

ELECTORS OF BRANDENBURG, DUKES AND KINGS OF PRUSSIA.

Margraves of Brandenburg.

A. D.
1134 Albert I., the Bear.
1170 Otho I.
1184 Otho II.
1206 Albert II.
1221 John I. and Otho III.
1266 John II.
1282 Otho IV.
1309 Waldemar.
1319 Henry I., the Young.
1320 An Interregnum.
1323 Louis I., of Bavaria.
1352 Louis II., the Roman.
1365 Otho V., the Sluggard.
1373 Wenceslas of Bohemia.
1378 Sigismund of Bohemia (deposed).
1388 Jossus the Bearded.
1411 Sigismund restored.

House of Hohenzollern.

1415 Frederick I.
1440 Frederick II., Ironside.
1470 Albert III., the German Achilles.

Electors of Brandenburg—House of Hohenzollern.

1476 John III. (Elector in 1486).
A. D.
1499 Joachim I.
1535 Joachim II.
1571 John George.
1598 Joachim Frederick.
1608 John Sigismund.

Electors of Brandenburg and Dukes of Prussia—House of Hohenzollern.

1618 John Sigismund.
1619 George William.
1640 Frederick William the Great Elector.
1688 Frederick III.

Kings of Prussia—House of Hohenzollern.

1701 Frederick I. (Elector Frederick III).
1713 Frederick William I.
1740 Frederick II., the Great.
1786 Frederick William II.
1797 Frederick William III.
1840 Frederick William IV.
1861 William I. (became Emperor of Germany in 1871).
1888 Frederick III. } Emperors of
1888 William II. } Germany.
(Deposed 1918.)

RUSSIAN GRAND-DUKES, CZARS AND EMPERORS.

Grand-Dukes of Kiev.

A. D.
875 Rurik.
879 Oleg.
913 Igor I.
945 Olga (widow regent).
955 Sviatoslav I.
973 Jaropolk I.
980 Vladimir the Great.
1015 Sviatopolk I.
1018 Jaraslav, or Jaroslaf I.
1054 Isiaslav I.
1073 Sviatoslav II.
1078 Wsewolod I.
1093 Sviatopolk II.
1113 Vladimir II.
1125 Mitislav.
1132 Jaropolk II.
1138 Wiatschelav.
1139 Wsevolod II.
1146 Isiaslav II. and Igor II.
1153 Rostislav.
1149 Jurie, or George I.

Grand-Duke of Vladimir.

1157 Andrew I. }
1175 Michael I. }
1177 Wsevolod III. }
1213 Jurie, or George II. }
1217 Constantine. }
1238 Jaraslav II.
1245 Alexander Nevski.
1263 Jaraslav III.
1270 Vasili, or Basil I.
1275 Demetri I.

1281 Andrew II.
1294 Daniel Alexandrovitsch.
1303 Jurie, or George III. (deposed).
1305 Michael III.
1320 Vasili, or Basil II.
1325 Jurie, or George III. restored.
1327 Alexander II.

Grand Dukes of Moscow.

1328 Ivan, or John I.
1340 Simeon the Proud.
1353 Ivan, or John II.
1359 Demetri II. (Prince of Susdal).
1362 Demetri III. (Donskoi).
1389 Vasili, or Basil III. (Temnoi).
1425 Vasili, or Basil IV.
1462 Ivan, or John III., the Great.
1505 Vasili, or Basil V.

Czars of Moscow.

1533 Ivan, or John IV., the Terrible.
1588 Feodor, or Theodore I.
1598 Demetri.
1598 Boris Godonoff.
1605 Feodor, or Theodore II.
1606 Demetri (impostor).
1606 Vasili Zouinski.
1610 Ladislas VII. of Poland.

Russian Czars, Emperors and Empresses of the House of Romanoff.

1613 Michael Romanoff.
1645 Alexis.
1676 Feodor.
1682 Ivan V. and Peter I.
1689 Peter I., the Great. alone.
1725 Catharine I.
1727 Peter II.
1730 Anna.
1740 Ivan VI.
1741 Elizabeth.
1762 Peter III.
1762 Catharine II.
1796 Paul.
1801 Alexander I.
1825 Nicholas I.
1855 Alexander II.
1881 Alexander III.
1894 Nicholas II. (Deposed 1917.)

} Emperors and Empresses.

DUKES OF SAVOY, KINGS OF SARDINIA AND KINGS OF ITALY.

Duke of Savoy.

A. D.
1416 Amadeus VIII., the Pacific.
1440 Ludovic.
1465 Amadeus IX., the Saint.
1472 Philibert I., the Hunter.
1482 Charles I., the Warlike.
1489 Charles II.
1496 Philip Lackland.
1497 Philibert II., the Fair.
1504 Charles III., the Good.
1553 Emmanuel Philibert, Iron Hand.
1580 Charles Emanuel I., the Great.
1630 Victor Amadeus I.
1637 Francis Hyacinthus.
1638 Charles Emmanuel II.
1675 Victor Amadeus II.

Kings of Sardinia and Dukes of Savoy.

A. D.
1720 Victor Amadeus II.
1730 Charles Emmanuel III.
1773 Victor Amadeus III.
1796 Charles Emmanuel IV.

Kings of Sardinia—House of Savoy.

1802 Victor Emmanuel I.
1821 Charles Felix.
1831 Charles Albert.
1849 Victor Emmanuel II.

Kings of Italy—House of Savoy.

1861 Victor Emmanuel II.
1878 Humbert.
1900 Victor Emmanuel III.

KINGS OF NAPLES AND SICILY.

Norman Dynasty.

A. D.
1131 Roger I.
1154 William I., the Bad.
1166 William II., the Good
1189 Tancred.
1194 William III.

Hohenstaufen Dynasty.

1197 Emperor Frederick II., of Germany.
A. D.
1250 Conrad.
1254 Conradin.
1258 Manfred.

House of Anjou.

1266 Charles of Anjou.

Kings of Naples—House of Anjou.

1282 Charles I. of Anjou.
1285 Charles II.
1309 Robert the Wise.

1343 Joanna I.
1382 Charles III.
1382 Louis I.
1385 Louis II.
1386 Ladislas of Hungary.
1414 Joanna II. (to 1435).

Kings of Sicily—House of Aragon.

1282 Peter I. (III. of Aragon).
1285 James I. (II. of Aragon).
1295 Frederick II.
1337 Peter II.
1342 Louis.
1355 Frederick III.
1376 Maria and Martin.
1402 Martin I.
1409 Martin II.
1410 Ferdinand I.
1416 Alfonso I. (to 1435).

King of Naples and Sicily—House of Aragon

1435 Alfonso I. (to 1458).

Kings of Naples—House of Aragon.

1458 Ferdinand I.
1494 Alfonso II.
1495 Ferdinand II.
1496 Frederick II. (to 1501).

Kings of Sicily—House of Aragon.

1458 John of Aragon.
1479 Ferdinand the Catholic (to 1503).

Naples and Sicily under the Kings of Spain.

1503 Ferdinand III. (V. of Spain).
1516 Charles I. (of Spain and V. of Germany).
1556 Philip I. (II. of Spain).
1598 Philip II. (III. of Spain).
1621 Philip III. (IV. of Spain).
1666 Charles II. (of Spain).
1700 Philip IV. (V. of Spain).
1707 Charles III. of Austria (VI. of Germany).

King of Naples.

1713 Charles III. of Austria.

King of Sicily.

1713 Victor Amadeus of Savoy.

Kings of Naples and Sicily.

1720 Charles III. of Austria.
1735 Charles IV. (III. of Spain).
1759 Ferdinand IV.

Kings of Naples.

1806 Joseph Bonaparte,
1808 Joachim Murat.

King of Sicily.

1806 Ferdinand IV. (to 1815).

Kings of Naples and Sicily.

1815 Ferdinand IV. restored.
1825 Francis I.
1830 Ferdinand V.
1859 Francis II. (Kingdom annexed to Italy, 1861).

KINGS OF HUNGARY.

Dynasty of Arpad.

A. D.
1000 Stephen the Pius.
1038 Peter the German (deposed).
1041 Aba, or Owen.
1044 Peter the German restored.
1047 Andrew I.
1061 Bela I.
1064 Salamon.
1075 Geisa I.
1077 Ladislas I., the Pious.
1095 Colomon.
1114 Stephen II., Thunder.
1131 Bela II.
1141 Geisa II.
1161 Stephen III.
1173 Bela III.
1196 Emmeric.
1204 Ladislas II.
1205 Andrew II.
1235 Bela IV.

A. D.
1270 Stephen IV.
1272 Ladislas III.
1290 Andrew III.

Elective Kings of Different Dynasties.

1301 Wenceslas of Bohemia.
1309 Charles Robert of Anjou.
1342 Louis the Great (of Anjou, also King of Poland, 1370–1382).
1382 Mary ("King Mary").
1385 Charles of Durazzo.
1387 Sigismund (King of Bohemia and Emperor of Germany).
1437 Albert of Austria (Emperor Albert I. of Germany).
1439 Elizabeth.
1440 Ladislas IV. (King of Poland).
1444 An Interregnum.
1445 John Hunniyades (regent).
1458 Ladislas V.

1458 Matthias Corvinus.
1490 Ladislas VI. (King of Poland).
1516 Louis II.
1526 John Zapolya.

Austrian House of Hapsburg.

1526 Ferdinand I. (Archduke of Austria, and Emperor of Germany, 1556–1564).
1563 Maximilian (Maximilian II., Archduke of Austria and Emperor of Germany).
1572 Rudolf (Archduke of Austria and Emperor Rudolf II. of Germany).
1608 Matthias II. (Matthias, Archduke of Austria and Emperor of Germany).
1618 Ferdinand II. } Archdukes of Austria and Emperors of Germany.
1625 Ferdinand III. }
1647 Ferdinand IV.
1655 Leopold I. } Archdukes of Austria and Emperors of Germany.
1687 Joseph I. }
1711 Charles III. (Archduke Charles of Austria, and Emperor Charles VI of Germany).
1740 Maria Theresa (Archduchess of Austria and wife of Emperor Francis I. of Germany).
1780 Joseph II. } Archdukes of Austria and Emperors of Germany.
1790 Leopold II. }
1792 Francis I. (Archduke Francis of Austria to 1804, and Emperor Francis II. of Germany to 1806, and Emperor Francis I. of Austria, 1804–1835).
1835 Ferdinand V. (Emperor Ferdinand I. of Austria).
1848 Francis Joseph (Emperor of Austria).
1916 Charles IV (deposed 1918).

KINGS OF POLAND.

Dynasty of Piast.

A. D.
1000 Boleslas I.
1025 Micislas II.
1034 Richsa, queen-regent.
1037 An Interregnum.
1041 Casimir I.
1058 Boleslas II., the Intrepid.
1081 Ladislas I., the Careless.
1102 Boleslas III., Wry-mouth.
1138 Ladislas II.
1146 Boleslas IV., the Curled.
1173 Micislas III., the Old (deposed).
1177 Casimir II., the Just.
1194 Lesko V., the White (deposed).
1200 Micislas III. restored.
1202 Ladislas III.
1206 Lesko the White restored.
1227 Boleslas V., the Chaste.
1279 Lesko VI., the Black.
1289 An Interregnum.
1295 Premislas.
1304 Ladislas IV., the Short.
1333 Casimir III., the Great.

Elective Kings of Different Dynasties.

1370 Louis the Great (King of Hungary).
1382 Maria.

A. D.
1384 Ladislas V. (Jagello). } The Jagellos.
1434 Ladislas VI.
1444 Casimir IV.
1492 John Albert.
1501 Alexander.
1506 Sigismund I., the Great.
1548 Sigismund II.
1572 An Interregnum.
1573 Henry of Valois (afterward Henry III. of France).
1575 Stephen Bathori.
1586 An Interregnum.
1587 Sigismund III.
1632 Ladislas VII.
1648 John Casimir.
1668 An Interregnum.
1669 Michael Wiesnowiski.
1674 John Sobieski.
1696 An Interregnum.
1697 Frederick Augustus I. (Elector of Saxony).
1704 Stanislas Leczinski.
1709 Frederick Augustus I. restored.
1733 Frederick Augustus II. (Elector of Saxony).
1763 An Interregnum.
1764 Stanislas Poniatowski (deposed in 1795, when Poland's independence ended).

KINGS OF DENMARK.

Dynasty of Skiold.

A. D.
875 Gorm the Old.

A. D.
941 Harald Bluetooth.
991 Sweyn I.

1014 Canute the Great (conqueror of England, Sweden and Norway).
1035 Hardicanute.
1042 Magnus the Good, of Norway.
1047 Sweyn II.
1073 An Interregnum.
1076 Harald the Simple.
1080 Canute IV.
1086 Olaf the Hungry.
1095 Eric the Good.
1103 An Interregnum.
1105 Nicholas I.
1135 Eric Harefoot.
1137 Eric the Lamb.
1147 Sweyn III. and Canute V.
1154 Sweyn III. alone.
1157 Waldemar the Great.
1182 Canute the Pious.
1202 Waldemar the Conqueror.
1241 Eric IV.
1250 Abel.
1252 Christopher I.
1259 Eric V.
1236 Eric VI.
1320 Christopher II.
1334 An Interregnum.
1340 Waldemar III.
1375 An Interregnum.
1376 Olaf V.
1387 Margaret.
1397 Margaret and Eric VII (Eric XIII. of Sweden).
1412 Eric VII. alone.
1438 An Interregnum.
1440 Christopher III. of Sweden.

House of Oldenberg.

1448 Christian I.
1481 John.
1513 Christian II.
1523 Frederick I.
1533 Christian III.
1559 Frederick II.
1588 Christian IV.
1648 Frederick III.
1670 Christian V.
1699 Frederick IV.
1730 Christian VI.
1746 Frederick V.
1766 Christian VII.
1808 Frederick VI.
1839 Christian VIII.
1848 Frederick VII.
1863 Christian IX.
1906 Frederick VIII.
1912 Christian X.

KINGS OF NORWAY.

A. D.
875 Harald Fairhair (Harfager)
934 Eric I.
940 Hako the Good.
963 Harald Graafeld.
977 Hako Jarl.
995 Olaf Trygvæson.
1015 Olaf the Saint.
1028 Canute the Great of Denmark.
1036 Magnus the Bastard.
1047 Harald Hardrada.
1066 Olaf III. and Magnus II.
1069 Olaf III. alone.
1093 Magnus Barefoot.
1103 Sigurd I., Eystein II. and Olaf IV.
1122 Sigurd I. alone.
1130 Magnus IV. and Harald IV.
1136 Sigurd II.
1136 Inge I., Eystein III., Hako III., and Magnus V.

A. D.
1162 Magnus V. alone.
1186 Swerro.
1202 Hako III.
1204 Guthrum.
1205 Inge II.
1207 Hako IV.
1280 Magnus VI.
1286 Eric II.
1299 Hako V.
1319 Magnus VII. (Magnus III. of Sweden).
1343 Hako VI.
1380 Olaf V. (Olaf II. of Denmark).
1397 *Norway united to Denmark by the Union of Calmar.*
1814 *Norway united with Sweden by the Peace of Kiel.*
1905 *Norway independent, under the House of Oldenburg, of Denmark.*
1905 Hakon VII.

KINGS OF SWEDEN.

A. D.
1000 Olaf Skotkonung.
1026 Edmund Colbrenner.
1051 Edmund Slemme.
1056 Stenkil.

A. D.
1066 Halstan.
1090 Ingo I., the Great.
1112 Philip.
1118 Ingo II

1129 Swerker I.
1155 Eric IX., the Pious.
1161 Charles VII.
1167 Canute.
1199 Swerker II.
1210 Eric X.
1216 John I.
1222 Eric XI., the Stammerer.
1250 Berger Jarl, regent.
1250 Waldemar I.
1275 Magnus I.
1290 Berger II.
1319 Magnus Smæk (deposed).
1350 Eric XII.
1359 Magnus Smæk restored.
1363 Albert of Mecklenburg.
1397 *Sweden united with Denmark by the Union of Calmar.*
1412 Eric XIII.
1440 Christopher.
1448 Charles III.
1471 An Interregnum.
1483 John II. (John I. of Denmark).
1502 An Interregnum.
1503 Steno Sture I.
1512 Steno Sture II.
1520 Christian II. of Denmark.

House of Vasa.

1523 Gustavus Vasa.
1560 Eric XIV.
1569 John III.
1592 Sigismund.
1599 Charles IX.
1611 Gustavus Adolphus.
1632 Christina (abdicated).
1654 Charles X.
1660 Charles XI.
1697 Charles XII.
1718 Ulrica Eleanora.
1721 Frederick of Hesse Cassel.
1751 Adolphus Frederick.
1771 Gustavus III. (murdered).
1792 Gustavus IV. (deposed).
1809 Charles XIII.

Kings of Sweden and Norway—House of Bernadotte.

1818 Charles XIV.
1844 Oscar I.
1859 Charles XV.
1872 Oscar II.
1907 Gustave V.

KINGS OF PORTUGAL.

House of Burgundy.

A. D.
1139 Alfonso I. (Son of Henry of Burgundy).
1185 Sancho I.
1212 Alfonso II., the Fat.
1223 Sancho II., the Idle.
1248 Alfonso III.
1279 Denis (the "Father of his Country").
1325 Alfonso IV., the Brave.
1357 Pedro the Severe.
1367 Ferdinand I.
1385 John I., the Bastard.
1433 Duarte (Edward).
1438 Alfonso V., the African.
1481 John II., the Perfect.
1495 Manuel the Great.
1521 John III., the Great.
1557 Sebastian.

A. D.
1578 Henry.
1580 Antonio.
1580 *Portugal united with Spain for sixty years.*

House of Braganza.

1640 John IV.
1656 Alfonso VI.
1683 Pedro II.
1706 John V.
1750 Joseph.
1777 Pedro III. and Maria I.
1786 Maria I., alone.
1816 John VI.
1826 Pedro IV.
1826 Maria II.
1853 Pedro V.
1861 Luiz.
1889 Charles.
1908 Manuel II (deposed 1910). Republic, 1910.

KINGS OF SPAIN.

House of Trastamara.

A. D.
1479 Ferdinand and Isabella.

Austrian House of Hapsburg.

1516 Charles I. (Emperor Charles V. of Germany).

A. D.
1556 Philip II.
1598 Philip III.
1621 Philip IV.
1665 Charles II.

House of Bourbon.

1700 Philip V. (of Anjou).
1746 Ferdinand VI.
1759 Charles III.
1788 Charles IV.

House of Bonaparte.

1808 Joseph Bonaparte.

House of Bourbon.

1813 Ferdinand VII.
1833 Isabella II.
1868 An Interregnum.

House of Savoy.

1871 Amadeo.
1873 *Spanish Republic.*

House of Bourbon.

1874 Alfonso XII.
1886 Alfonso XIII.

SULTANS OF TURKEY.

A. D.	
1299	Othman, Osman, or Ottoman.
1326	Orchan.
1360	Amurath, or Murad I. (murdered).
1389	Bajazet I. (died a prisoner).
1403	Solyman I. (dethroned).
1410	Musa-Chelebi.
1413	Mohammed I.
1421	Amurath, or Murad II.
1451	Mohammed II.
1481	Bajazet II.
1512	Selim I.
1520	Solyman II., the Magnificent.
1566	Selim II.
1574	Amurath, or Murad III.
1595	Mohammed III.
1603	Ahmed, or Achmet I.
1617	Mustapha I. (deposed).
1618	Othman II. (murdered).
1622	Mustapha I. restored and murdered.
1623	Amurath, or Murad IV.
1640	Ibrahim (murdered).
1649	Mohammed IV. (deposed).
1687	Solyman III.
1691	Ahmed, or Achmet II.
1695	Mustapha II. (deposed).
1703	Ahmed, or Achmet III. (deposed).
1730	Mahmoud I., or Mohammed V.
1754	Othman III.
1757	Mustapha III.
1774	Abdul-Hamid I.
1789	Selim III. (deposed and murdered).
1807	Mustapha IV. (deposed and murdered).
1808	Mahmoud II., or Mohammed VI.
1839	Abdul-Medjid.
1861	Abdul-Aziz (murdered).
1876	Amurath, or Murad V. (deposed).
1876	Abdul-Hamid II.
1909	Mohammed V (deposed).
1918	Mohammed VI (deposed 1922).
1923	Republic.

DYNASTIES AND LATE EMPERORS OF CHINA.

Ancient Dynasties.

B. C.	
2207	Hia Dynasty.
1767	Shang Dynasty.
1122	Chow Dynasty.
256	Tsin Dynasty.
207	Hang Dynasty.

The Three Kingdoms.

A. D.	
220	Shohang Dynasty (to 263).
220	Goei Dynasty in the North (to 265).
220	El Dynasty in the South (to 280).

Mediæval Dynasties.

265	Tsin Dynasty.
420	U-ta Dynasty.
589	Sui Dynasty.
617	Tang Dynasty.
907	Hehu-u-ta Dynasty.
960	Song Dynasty.
1279	Mogul Khans.
1368	Ming Dynasty.

Ta-tsing, or Manchu-Tartar Dynasty.

1644	Shun-chi.
1662	Kang-hi
1722	Yung-ching.
1735	Kien-lung.
1795	Kia-king.
1820	Taou-kwang.
1850	Hien-fung.
1862	Yung-chi.
1875	Kwang-su (Dowager Empress rules).
1908	Pu-Yi (Prince Chun, regent).

KINGS OF BAVARIA.

A. D.	
1805	Maximilian Joseph I.
1825	Louis I. (abdicated).
1848	Maximilian Joseph II.
1864	Louis II. (drowned himself).
1886	Otho.
1913	Ludwig III.

KINGS OF HANOVER.

A. D.	
1814	Geo. William Frederick (George III. of England).
1820	Geo. Augustus Frederick (George IV. of England).
1830	William Henry (William IV. of England).
1837	Ernest Augustus (Duke of Cumberland).
1851	George V. (kingdom annexed to Prussia, 1866).

KINGS OF HOLLAND.

House of Bonaparte.

A. D.	
1806	Louis Bonaparte (till 1810).
1810	*Holland annexed to the French Empire.*

House of Orange, or Nassau.

A. D.	
1814	William I.
1840	William II. (abdicated).
1849	William III.
1890	Wilhelmina.

KINGS OF BELGIUM.

House of Saxe-Coburg.

A. D.	
1830	Leopold I.
1865	Leopold II.
1909	Albert I.

KINGS OF GREECE.

House of Bavaria.

A. D.	
1833	Otho (deposed 1862).

House of Denmark.

A. D.	
1863	George I.
1913	Constantine I.
1917	Alexander I.
1920	Constantine I.
1922	George II. (deposed).
1924	Republic.

KINGS OF ITALY.

House of Savoy.

A. D.	
1861	Victor Emanuel II. (formerly King Victor Emmanuel II. of Sardinia).
1878	Humbert.
1900	Victor Emmanuel III.

EMPERORS OF BRAZIL.

House of Braganza.

A. D.	
1822	Dom Pedro I. (abdicated).
1831	Dom Pedro II. (deposed).
1889	Brazil a Republic.

KINGS OF SERVIA.

A. D.	
1882	Milan (abdicated).
1889	Alexander.
1903	Peter.
	Servia part of Jugo-slavia, 1918.
1921	Alexander I.

BRITISH GOVERNORS AND VICEROYS OF INDIA.

Governors-General.

A. D.	
1772	Warren Hastings.
1785	Sir John McPherson.
1786	Lord Cornwallis.
1793	Sir John Shore.
1796	Lord Cornwallis.
1798	Sir Alured Clarke.
1798	Lord Mornington.
1805	Sir George Hilaro Barlow.
1805	Lord Cornwallis.
1807	Lord Minto.
1813	Marquis of Hastings.
1823	Hon. John Adam.
1823	Right Hon. George Canning.
1823	Lord Amherst.
1828	Hon. Wm. Butterworth Bayley.
1828	Lord Wm. Cavendish Bentinck.
1835	Sir Charles Theophilus Metcalf.
1836	Lord Auckland.
1842	Lord Ellenborough.
1844	William Wilberforce Bird.
1844	Sir Henry Hardinge.
1848	Lord Dalhousie.
1856	Lord Canning.

Viceroys.

1858	Lord Elgin.
1863	Lord Lawrence.
1868	Lord Mayo (assassinated).
1872	Lord Northbrook.
1876	Lord Lytton.
1881	Marquis of Ripon.
1884	Lord Dufferin.
1888	Lord Lansdowne.
1893	Lord Elgin.
1899	Lord Curzon.
1905	Earl of Minto.
1910	Sir Charles Hardinge.
1916	Viscount Chelmsford.
1921	Earl of Reading.

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

A. D.	
1789	George Washington (of Virginia).
1797	John Adams (of Massachusetts).
1801	Thomas Jefferson (of Virginia).
1809	James Madison (of Virginia).
1817	James Monroe (of Virginia).
1825	John Quincy Adams (of Massachusetts).
1829	Andrew Jackson (of Tennessee).
1837	Martin Van Buren (of New York).
1841	Wm. Henry Harrison (of Ohio).
1841	John Tyler (of Virginia).
1845	James Knox Polk (of Tennessee).
1849	Zachary Taylor (of Louisiana).
1850	Millard Fillmore (of New York)
1853	Franklin Pierce (of New Hampshire).
1857	James Buchanan (of Pennsylvania).
1861	Abraham Lincoln (of Illinois).
1865	Andrew Johnson (of Tennessee).
1869	Ulysses Simpson Grant (of Illinois).
1877	Rutherford Birchard Hayes (of Ohio).
1881	James Abram Garfield (of Ohio).
1881	Chester Allan Arthur (of New York).
1885	Grover Cleveland (of New York).
1889	Benjamin Harrison (of Indiana).
1893	Grover Cleveland (of New York).
1897	William McKinley (of Ohio).
1901	Theodore Roosevelt (of New York).
1909	William Howard Taft (of Ohio).
1913	Woodrow Wilson (of New Jersey).
1921	Warren G. Harding (of Ohio).
1923	Calvin Coolidge (of Vermont).

RULERS OF EGYPT.

A. D.		
1805	Mehemet Ali.	Pashas.
1848	Ibrahim Pasha.	
1848	Abbas Pasha.	
1854	Said Pasha.	
1863	Ismail Pasha.	Khedives.
1879	Tewfik Pasha.	
1892	Abbas Pasha.	
1914	Hussein Kemal.	Sultans.
1917	Fuad.	
1922	Fuad I., King.	

EMPERORS AND PRESIDENTS OF MEXICO.

Emperor.

1822	Don Augustin Iturbide (driven off in 1823 and shot in 1824).

Presidents.

A. D.	
1825	Guadalupe Victoria.
1829	Guerrero.

1830 Bustamente.
1832 Pedraza.
1833 Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna.
1837 Bustamente.
1841 Santa Anna.
1845 Herrera.
1846 Paredes.
1846 Santa Anna.
1848 Herrera.
1851 Arista.
1853 Santa Anna.
1854 Alvarez.
1856 Comonfort.
1858 Zuloaga.
1860 Benito Juarez.

Emperors and Presidents.

1864 Maximilian of Austria, Emperor (deposed and shot in 1867).
1864 Benito Juarez, President.
1872 Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada.
1877 Porfirio Diaz.
1881 Gonzales.
1885 Porfirio Diaz.
1911 Francisco de la Barra.
1912 Francisco Madero.
1913 Victoriano Huerta.
1914 Francisco Carvajal.
1915 Venustiano Carranza.
1920 Adolfo de la Huerta.
1920 Alvero Obregon.
1924 Plutarco E. Calles.

PRESIDENTS AND VICE PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES

PRESIDENTS	WHEN	HOW LONG	STATE FROM	PARTY	VICE PRESIDENTS
George Washington	1789–1797	8 yrs.	Virginia	Federalist	John Adams
John Adams	1797–1801	4 yrs.	Massachusetts	Federalist	Thomas Jefferson
Thomas Jefferson	1801–1809	8 yrs.	Virginia	Democratic	Aaron Burr—George Clinton
James Madison	1809–1817	8 yrs.	Virginia	Democratic	George Clinton—Elbridge Gerry
James Monroe	1817–1825	8 yrs.	Virginia	Democratic	Daniel D. Tompkins
John Quincy Adams	1825–1829	4 yrs.	Massachusetts	Democratic	John Caldwell Calhoun
Andrew Jackson	1829–1837	8 yrs.	Tennessee	Democratic	John Caldwell Calhoun—Martin Van Buren
Martin Van Buren	1837–1841	4 yrs.	New York	Democratic	Richard Mentor Johnson
William Henry Harrison	1841	1 mo.	Ohio	Whig	John Tyler
John Tyler	1841–1845	3 yrs. 11 mo.	Virginia	Whig	
James Knox Polk	1845–1849	4 yrs.	Tennessee	Democratic	George Mifflin Dallas
Zachary Taylor	1849–1850	1 yr. 4 mo.	Louisiana	Whig	Millard Fillmore
Millard Fillmore	1850–1853	2 yrs. 8 mo.	New York	Whig	
Franklin Pierce	1853–1857	4 yrs.	New Hampshire	Democratic	William Rufus King
James Buchanan	1857–1861	4 yrs.	Pennsylvania	Democratic	John Cabell Breckinridge
Abraham Lincoln	1861–1865	4 yrs. 1½ mo.	Illinois	Republican	Hannibal Hamlin—Andrew Johnson
Andrew Johnson	1865–1869	3 yrs. 10½ mo.	Tennessee	Republican	
Ulysses Simpson Grant	1869–1877	8 yrs.	Illinois	Republican	Schuyler Colfax—Henry Wilson
Rutherford Birchard Hayes	1877–1881	4 yrs.	Ohio	Republican	William Almon Wheeler
James Abram Garfield	1881	6½ mo.	Ohio	Republican	Chester Allan Arthur
Chester Allan Arthur	1881–1885	3 yrs. 5½ mo.	New York	Republican	
Grover Cleveland	1885–1889	4 yrs.	New York	Democratic	Thomas Andrews Hendricks
Benjamin Harrison	1889–1893	4 yrs.	Indiana	Republican	Levi Parsons Morton
Grover Cleveland	1893–1897	4 yrs.	New York	Democratic	Adlai Ewing Stevenson
William McKinley	1897–1901	4 yrs. 6½ mo.	Ohio	Republican	Garrett A. Hobart—Theodore Roosevelt
Theodore Roosevelt	1901–1909	7 yrs. 5½ mo.	New York	Republican	Charles Warren Fairbanks
William Howard Taft	1909–1913	4 yrs.	Ohio	Republican	James Schoolcraft Sherman
Woodrow Wilson	1913–1921	8 yrs.	New Jersey	Democratic	Thomas Riley Marshall
Warren G. Harding	1921–1923	2 yrs. 5 mo.	Ohio	Republican	Calvin Coolidge
Calvin Coolidge	1923				

STATES.	SETTLED BY	WHERE SETTLED.	WHEN SETTLED	WHEN ADMITTED.
Virginia	English	Jamestown	1607	1788
Massachusetts	English	Plymouth	1620	1788
New York	Dutch	New York	1623	1788
New Hampshire	English	Dover	1623	1788
Connecticut	English	Windsor	1633	1788
Maryland	English	St. Mary's	1634	1788
Rhode Island	English	Providence	1636	1790
Delaware	Swedes	Christina	1638	1787
North Carolina	English	Chowan River	1650	1789
New Jersey	English	Elizabeth	1664	1787
South Carolina	English	Ashley River	1670	1788
Pennsylvania	English	Chester	1681	1787
Georgia	English	Savannah	1733	1788
Vermont	English	Fort Dummer	1724	1791
Kentucky	English	Boonesborough	1775	1792
Tennessee	English	Fort Loudon	1757	1796
Ohio	Americans	Marietta	1788	1802
Louisiana	French	Iberville	1699	1812
Indiana	French	Vincennes	1705	1816
Mississippi	French	Biloxi	1699	1817
Illinois	French	Kaskaskia	1682	1818
Alabama	French	Mobile	1702	1819
Maine	English	Bristol	1625	1820
Missouri	French	St. Genevieve	1755	1821
Arkansas	French	Arkansas Post	1685	1836
Michigan	French	Sault Sta Marie	1668	1837
Florida	Spaniards	St. Augustine	1565	1845
Texas	Spaniards	San Antonio	1692	1845
Iowa	Americans	Burlington	1833	1846
Wisconsin	French	Green Bay	1745	1848
California	Spaniards	San Diego	1769	1850
Minnesota	Americans	St. Paul	1838	1858
Oregon	Americans	Astoria	1811	1859
Kansas	Americans			1861
West Virginia	English			1863
Nevada	Americans			1864
Nebraska	Americans			1867
Colorado	Americans			1876
North Dakota	Americans			1889
South Dakota	Americans			1889
Montana	Americans			1889
Washington	Americans			1889
Idaho	Americans			1890
Wyoming	Americans			1890
Utah	Americans	Salt Lake City	1848	1894
Oklahoma	Americans			1906

SEVEN WONDERS OF THE ANCIENT WORLD.

Pyramids of Egypt.
Walls and Hanging Gardens of Babylon.
Mausolæum, or tomb of Mausolus, at Halicarnassus.
Temple of Artemis, or Diana, at Ephesus.
Temple and Statue of Zeus, or Jupiter, at Olympia, in Elis.
Pharos at Alexandria, in Egypt.
Colossus of Rhodes.

HISTORIC LEGENDS.

We will now note the legends of history—stories which were formerly believed to be true, but many of which modern scholars, historians and antiquarians have demonstrated to be pure fables.

Many Grecian and Roman legends are so remarkable and extravagant that their falsity is at once apparent; as the stories of the circumstances which they narrate are so entirely out of the natural order of things that their occurrence could not have been possible. The most remarkable legend of the Middle Ages is that of William Tell and Gesler in Swiss history; and the mast famous of modern legends is that of Captain John Smith and Pocahontas in our own history.

GRECIAN LEGENDS.

Inachus, Cecrops, Lelex, Cadmus, Danaus, and Pelops.—The oldest city in Greece was Argos, the capital of Argolis, which was founded in the year 1856 B. C., by Inachus, a Phœnician. In the year 1556 B. C.—three hundred years after the founding of Argos—Cecrops, an Egyptian, founded in Attica a city which he named Athens in honor of the Goddess Athena. The Egyptian, Lelex, is said to have founded Sparta, B. C. 1520. The Phœnician, Cadmus, is said to have founded Thebes and its famous citadel, the Cadméa, B. C. 1493. The Egyptian, Danaus, is said to have arrived at Argos B. C. 1485, with fifty daughters, and to have taught the people to dig wells. The Phrygian prince, Pelops, is said to have landed on the peninsula of Southern Greece, named in his honor Peloponnesus, or Island of Pelops, about 1350 B. C.

Hercules.—A fabulous personage of Greece's Heroic Age was Hercules [*Her'-ku-leez*], celebrated for his wonderful feats of strength. He was reputed to be the son of Zeus and Alcmena, the wife of Amphitryon, king of Thebes. While yet an infant in his cradle, Hercules is said to have strangled two huge serpents which the goddess Hera had sent to destroy him. The twelve labors which Hera exacted of Hercules were the following: 1. He killed the Nemean lion and wore his skin in the remainder of his exploits. 2. He slew the Lernean hydra, whose heads multiplied sevenfold on being severed. 3. He brought to Eurystheus upon his shoulders the Erymanthean boar. 4. He subdued the golden-horned and brazen-hoofed stag of Diana. 5. He destroyed with his arrows the foul Stymphalian birds. 6. He cleansed the Augean stables. 7. He tamed the furious bull of Crete. 8. He gave Diomedes to be devoured by his own horses. 9. He vanquished the Amazons. 10. He killed the three-headed Geryon, king of Gades [now Cadiz], in Spain, and brought his oxen to Greece. 11. He killed the hundred-headed dragon of the Hesperides, and obtained the golden apples of

his garden. 12. He dragged the three-headed dog Cerberus from the gate of Hades, into which he descended twice Hercules killed the centaur Nessus with an arrow poisoned with the blood of the Lernean hydra, because the centaur had insulted the hero's wife, Dejanira. The dying centaur persuaded Dejanira to give a tunic dipped in his blood to her husband in reconciliation; but as soon as Hercules clothed himself in this garment he was poisoned by it, and perished in the flames of a funeral pile which he built on Mount Œta. Zeus received him as a god, and gave to him in marriage Hebe, the goddess of youth. Hercules is usually represented as a robust man, leaning on his club, wearing the skin of the Nemean lion on his shoulders, and holding the Hesperian fruit in his hands.

Theseus.—Theseus, a fabulous king of Athens, was another legendary character of early Greece, and was regarded as the civilizer of Attica. He is said to have kidnapped the beautiful Helen, daughter of Tyndarus, king of Sparta; but Helen was rescued by her brothers, Castor and Pollux, who were afterwards deified.

Argonautic Expedition.—In the time of Hercules, Jason, a prince of Thessaly, went on the celebrated Argonautic Expedition, so called from the ship Argo, in which he sailed. The following is the story of the Argonautic Expedition, according to the Greek poets. Phryxus, a Theban prince, and his sister Helle, being obliged to leave their native country to escape the cruelty of their step-mother, mounted the back of a winged ram with a golden fleece, to be conveyed to Colchis, a country on the eastern border of the Euxine, or Black Sea, where an uncle of theirs was king. While passing over the strait now called the Dardanelles, Helle became giddy, fell into the water and was drowned; whence the strait received the name of Hellespont, or Sea of Helle. Phryxus arrived safely in Colchis, and sacrified his winged ram to Jupiter in acknowledgment of Divine protection, and put the golden fleece into that deity's temple. He was afterwards murdered by his uncle, who wished to obtain the golden fleece. It was to avenge the death of Phryxus and to secure the golden fleece that Jason undertook the Argonautic Expedition. Jason obtained the golden fleece and married Media, a daughter of the king of Colchis.

The Gordian Knot.—While Alexander the Great was conquering Asia Minor, he found in the citadel of Gordium a very ancient chariot with a knot twisted in the most intricate manner, respecting which an oracle had declared that whoever should loosen this knot should conquer Asia. Alexander is said to have cut the knot with his sword, considering that sufficient to make him master of Asia.

Diogenes.—The eccentric philosopher, Diogenes, is said to have lived in a tub and to have worn but a single garment. His only worldly possessions were his tub, a garment, a staff, and a wooden bowl for drinking. One day observing a boy drinking from the hollow of his hand, he dashed his bowl to pieces, saying: "That boy has taught me that I still have something unnecessary." Being seen

at one time with a lighted lantern in mid-day in the streets of Athens, and being asked what he was hunting, he replied: "An honest man." One day, while mending his tub, he is said to have been visited by Alexander the Great, who asked the philosopher what he could do to better his condition. Diogenes replied: "Nothing except to get out of the sunshine." Alexander thereupon remarked: "Were I not Alexander, I would be Diogenes."

ROMAN LEGENDS.

Legend of Æneas.—According to the Roman legend, Æneas, a famous Trojan warrior, left his native country immediately after the fall of Troy, and made his way to the western shores of Italy, where he founded the city of Lavinium. After slaying in battle Latinus, king of Latium, Æneas united the Latins with his own followers; and thereafter the united people were called Latins. Thirty years afterwards, the Latins removed to the Alban Mount, where they built the city of Alba.

Legend of Romulus and Remus.—Several centuries after the events just related, there reigned at Alba a king named Procas, who had two sons, Numitor and Amulius. When Procas died Numitor was to succeed to the throne of Alba; but Amulius seized the throne and made himself king and afterwards caused the son of Numitor to be slain and made his daughter Sylvia become a Vestal Virgin. Sylvia married Mars, the god of war, with whom she had twin sons, Romulus and Remus. Amulius ordered the two infants to be drowned in the Tiber, but the basket which contained them floated to the foot of the Palatine Hill, where they were found by a she-wolf, which carried them to her den and nursed them as her own offspring. Some time afterward the two children were taken to the house of a shepherd on the Palatine Hill, where they were brought up. At length Remus was taken to Alba and brought before Amulius. Romulus and his friends went to Alba and rescued Remus, killing Amulius, and placed Numitor on the throne of Alba.

Founding of Rome by Romulus.—Romulus and Remus prepared to return to the Palatine Hill, where they resolved to build a city, and they inquired of the gods by divination which should give his name to the city. They watched the heavens for one day and one night; and at sunrise Remus saw six vultures, and soon afterward Romulus saw twelve. It was decided that the favor of the gods was on the side of Romulus, who accordingly began to build a city on the Palatine Hill. When Remus, who was mortified and angry, saw the low wall and the ditch which inclosed the space for the new city, he scornfully leaped over and exclaimed, "Will this keep out an enemy?" Upon this insulting conduct, Remus was slain, either by Romulus or by one of his followers. The city, which was named Rome, in honor of Romulus, is thought to have beer founded 753 years before Christ. Rome at first contained a thousand dwellings; and its population was rapidly increased by exiles, criminals, fugitives from

justice, and desperate characters of all sorts, who fled to the new city for refuge.

Romulus, first King of Rome.—Seizure of the Sabine women.—Romulus was chosen the first King of Rome, and a Senate, of one hundred members, was established. But the Romans, as the inhabitants of the new city were called, were without wives; and as the neighboring people refused to give their daughters in marriage to such desperate characters, Romulus determined upon securing by stratagem what he could not obtain by force. He therefore arranged some games and shows at Rome and invited the neighboring people to attend. The Sabines and Latins came in great numbers, bringing their wives and daughters with them. When the shows began, Romulus gave a signal, whereupon the Roman youth rushed upon the unsuspecting strangers, seized the most beautiful maidens, and carried them off for wives.

War with the Sabines—Treachery and death of Tarpeia.—The outrage just mentioned led to a war between the Romans and Sabines. A large army under Titus Tatius, the Sabine king, laid siege to Rome. The Romans garrisoned and fortified the Capitoline Hill. Tarpeia, the daughter of the Roman commander, agreed to open the gates of the fortress to the Sabines if they would give her the golden bracelets which they wore on their arms. She accordingly opened the gates; but as soon as the Sabines entered the fortress, they killed the traitress with their brazen shields. Having gained possession of the Capitoline Hill, the Sabines were able to defy the Romans for a long time.

The Temple of Janus.—Many battles were fought between the Romans and the Sabines in the valleys which divide the Capitoline and Palatine Hills. At length, when the Sabines advanced near the city, the Romans retired inside the city walls and shut the gates. As the Sabines were about to enter the city, the gates flew open; the Romans again shut them; but they opened a second time; a mighty stream of water burst forth from the Temple of Janus, and swept away the Sabines who had entered the city. Ever afterward the gates of the Temple of Janus stood open when Rome was at war, that the gods might come out to aid the Romans; but in time of peace the gates were always closed.

Peace between the Romans and the Sabines—Union of the two nations.—The Romans made great efforts to retake the Capitoline Hill. At length, while the two armies were combatting, the Sabine wives of the Romans rushed between the contending forces, and, by their earnest entreaties and supplications, induced both parties to suspend hostilities. A treaty of peace followed, by which the Romans and the Sabines were to be united as one nation and Romulus and Titus Tatius were to reign jointly at Rome. Soon afterward Titus Tatius was killed at Lavinium, and Romulus thereafter reigned alone.

Death of Romulus.—After a reign of thirty-seven years, Romulus came to his death in an unknown manner. The Roman legend states that, while he was present at a public meeting in the Field of Mars, there arose a great tempest

and whirlwind, while at the same time the sun was eclipsed, and it was as dark as night. When the storm was over, and the light of the sun returned, Romulus was not to be found. It was believed by the superstitious Romans that his father, Mars, the god of war, had carried him to heaven in a fiery chariot. The Romans built a temple to Romulus, and worshiped him as a god by the name of Quirinus. (B. C. 716.)

Tullus Hostilius.—Fight between the Horatii and the Curiatii.—The peaceful Numa Pompilius was succeeded as king of Rome by the warlike Tullus Hostilius, during whose reign the Romans engaged in a war with the Albans. Just as the armies of the Romans and the Albans were about to engage in conflict, they agreed to have the contest decided by a combat to be fought by six champions, three from each side; and the defeated nation was to become subject to the victorious one. In the Roman army there were three brothers named Horatii, and in the Alban army there were three brothers named Curiatii. These, being fixed upon as the champions, took their places between the two armies and engaged in combat. After two of the Horatii had fallen, the other Horatius began to flee; but suddenly turning, he fell upon the three wounded Curiatii, and killed them in succession. When the victorious Horatius returned to Rome, he met his sister Horatia, who had been betrothed to one of the Curiatii. Horatia shrieked aloud, and reproached her brother for his bloody deed, which so enraged Horatius that he plunged a knife into his sister's heart, and she fell dead. For this crime Horatius was condemned to death, but he was afterward pardoned, because by his victory over the Curiatii he had saved the Romans from slavery. By the terms of the agreement made just before the combat, the Albans became subject to the Romans.

Expulsion of Tarquin the Proud and Abolition of Monarchy.—While the Romans were besieging the town of Ardea, Tarquin's sons, Sextus, Titus and Aruns, and their cousin Collatinus, got into a dispute about the good qualities of their wives, and all agreed to visit their homes by surprise. They found the wives of Sextus, Titus and Aruns feasting and making merry, while Lucretia, the wife of Collatinus, was found working at her loom. They all agreed that Lucretia was the worthiest lady. Sextus fell into a violent passion for Lucretia, and shortly afterward he behaved toward her in such a manner that she committed suicide. Lucius Junius Brutus, a relative of the royal family, bound himself by an oath to avenge the wicked act of Sextus. The outrage of Sextus roused the indignation of the Roman people; and Brutus, showing them the bloody corpse of Lucretia and haranguing them, induced them to expel the royal family from the throne of Rome, and to abolish monarchy altogether. Tarquin the Proud and his family, finding themselves abandoned, retired into voluntary exile (B. C. 510).

War with Porsenna, King of Clusium—Horatius Cocles.—Porsenna, King of Clusium, also took the field in favor of the deposed Tarquin the Proud, and advanced against Rome with a large army. The Romans were driven across

the Tiber; but the Roman army was saved by the valor of Horatius Cocles, who alone defended the wooden bridge that crossed the river until the Romans had all crossed, and who then cut down the bridge while the enemy's darts were flying all around him, and at last plunged into the stream and reached the opposite shore in safety.

Mutius Scævola.—At length Porsenna pressed the siege of Rome so closely that the people in the city suffered greatly from famine. But the city was saved by the daring conduct of a young Roman named Mutius Scævola, who penetrated into the enemy's camp for the purpose of assassinating Porsenna, but who, by mistake, killed one of the attendants of the Clusian king. When threatened with torture unless he made a confession, Mutius Scævola thrust his right hand into a fire and kept it there until it was burnt off, to show Porsenna that no torture could induce him to betray the plans of his countrymen. Porsenna, admiring such patriotism and courage, gave Scævola his liberty; when the heroic young Roman warned the Clusian king to raise the siege of Rome and make peace, as three hundred young Romans had sworn to take his life, and that he had been chosen by lot to make the first attempt. Porsenna, alarmed for his life, immediately made peace with the Romans and marched home. So says the Roman legend; but other accounts say that Porsenna reduced Rome, and that the Romans afterwards recovered their independence.

Banishment of Coriolanus—Veturia and Volumnia.—When, during a famine in Rome, a supply of corn arrived from Sicily, the haughty patrician, Caius Marcius Coriolanus, proposed that none should be given to the plebeians until they consented to have the office of Tribunes abolished. This proposal aroused the indignation of the plebeians, and they procured the banishment of Coriolanus. Enraged at this treatment, Coriolanus went to the Volscians; and afterwards he led a Volscian army against Rome, and laid siege to the city, but he was finally induced to retreat from Rome by the entreaties of his wife, Veturia, and his mother, Volumnia, who had gone out of the city at the head of a deputation of Roman ladies to persuade Coriolanus not to be the cause of the ruin of his country. Coriolanus, yielding to the solicitations of his mother, exclaimed: "Mother, you have saved Rome, but you have ruined your son!" It is said that the Volscians, enraged at the retreat of Coriolanus from Rome, put him to death; but a tradition states that he lived to a great age in exile among the Volscians, and that he was often heard to exclaim: "How miserable is the condition of an old man in banishment!"

Dictatorship of Cincinnatus—Mount Algidus.—The Æquians, having broken their peace with Rome, and having formed a camp on Mount Algidus, lured an army of Romans into a narrow defile, where they must have been taken prisoners, had not the patrician Lucius Quintus Cincinnatus, after having been appointed Dictator, come to their relief. The Dictator was an officer superior to the Consuls and the Senate, and he had all power over the laws themselves. When the deputies of the Senate came to inform Cincinnatus that he had been ap-

pointed Dictator, they found him ploughing in the field. He immediately left his plough, took command of the army, and marched against the enemy; and, having surrounded them, compelled them to surrender to the Romans. At the end of sixteen days, Cincinnatus resigned the dictatorship and returned to his plough.

Invasion of Italy by the Gauls.—In 390 B. C., Rome was threatened by a more powerful enemy than she had ever before encountered—namely, the Gauls, who had crossed the Alps into Northern Italy, or Cisalpine Gaul. These barbarians were the inhabitants of the country then called Gaul (now France). According to tradition, a citizen of the Etruscan city of Clusium, having been refused redress from the magistrates of that city for an injury which he had received from one of the chief men of the city, resolved to have revenge on his country. He crossed the Alps into Gaul, taking with him a large quantity of the wines and fruits of Italy. Seeing that the barbarian Gauls were very much pleased with these presents, the injured Clusian invited them to go with him into Italy and take possession of the country which produced these delicacies. Immediately an immense horde of Gauls, taking with them their women and children, crossed the Alps into Italy, and marched to Clusium, to which they laid siege. The people of Clusium applied for aid to the Romans, who thereupon sent ambassadors to induce the Gauls to withdraw from Italy.

March of the Gauls to Rome.—The Roman ambassadors, having failed in the object of their mission, joined the Clusians in an attack on the besieging Gauls, and killed one of the Gallic chiefs. Brennus, the king of the Gauls, demanded satisfaction from the Roman Senate for the conduct of the ambassadors, and when his demand was rejected he took up his march, with 70,000 of his followers, directly for Rome.

Battle on the Allia—Rome Taken and Burned by the Gauls.—On the banks of the river Allia, eleven miles from Rome, a great battle was fought, in which the Roman army, consisting of 40,000 men, was hopelessly annihilated. This defeat rendered it impossible to defend the city, but 1,000 Romans garrisoned the Capitol, which they resolved to defend to the last extremity, while the greater number of the inhabitants of Rome fled for refuge to the neighboring towns. About eighty priests and patricians, resolving never to survive the ruin of their city, clothed themselves in their long robes and awaited death. When the Gauls entered Rome they found the city deserted, and a death-like silence prevailed; but when they entered the Forum, where sat the aged Senators, they were seized with superstitious awe at the sight of those venerable persons, whom they imagined to be divinities. At length, one of the Gauls seized hold of the white beard of Marcus Papirius, one of the Senators. The old man, enraged at this insult, struck the insolent barbarian with his ivory staff; whereupon the Gauls massacred the Senators, and set fire to Rome, which, with the exception of the Capitol and a few houses on the Palatine Hill, was totally reduced to ashes.

Defense of the Capitol.—The Gauls vainly attempted to obtain possession of

the Capitol. They endeavored to climb up the steep ascent in the night, and would have succeeded had not the noise of the sacred geese in the Temple of Juno awoke Marcus Manlius, who immediately hastened to the spot and hurled down the rocky precipice such of the Gauls as attempted to make their way inside the walls of the Capitol.

Departure of the Gauls from Rome.—When famine began to prey upon the Romans who garrisoned the Capitol, and sickness was rapidly reducing the numbers of the Gauls, Brennus, the Gallic chief, agreed to abandon Rome and its territory on condition of receiving a thousand pounds of gold. While the gold was being weighed, the banished patrician Camillus arrived with an army for the relief of the garrison, and ordered the gold to be taken back to the Capitol, saying: "It has ever been the custom of us Romans to ransom our country, not with gold, but with iron." A battle followed, and the Gauls were driven from Rome. The Gallic leader, Brennus, was soon afterward taken prisoner by the Romans and put to death. So says the Roman legend concerning the retreat of the Gauls from Rome; but according to a more probable account, the Gauls were recalled by a sudden invasion of their own country by the Venetians. The fact of the Gallic invasion of Italy and burning of Rome cannot be disputed, but many of alleged incidents and circumstances connected with it are fables.

Death of Regulus.—It is said that after the return of Regulus to Carthage, the Carthaginians, enraged at his conduct in breaking off the negotiations for peace, cruelly tortured him to death. After cutting off his eyelids and putting him into a dark dungeon, they exposed his naked eyes to the burning sun, and then put him into a cask set all around with sharp spikes, where he died in agony. This story is believed to have been invented by the Romans to fire their soldiers with deadly hatred against the Carthaginians; and there are good reasons for believing that Regulus died a natural death.

MEDIÆVAL AND MODERN LEGENDS.

William Tell and Gesler.—The best known legend of the Middle Ages is that of William Tell and Gesler. Gesler was one of the tyrannical Austrian governors expelled by the Swiss. He placed the ducal cap of Austria in the market place of Altorf, and ordered all who passed to bow to the cap, in token of submission. William Tell refused to bow to the cap, and was thereupon imprisoned. Being a good archer, Tell was promised his freedom if he would shoot an apple from his son's head. Tell hit the apple and received his freedom, saying to Gesler: "Had I killed my son, I would have killed you." Tell is said to have been at once seized by order of the enraged tyrant, and conveyed across the lake of Lucerne in a boat in which were Gesler and his attendants; but a violent storm having arisen during the passage, Tell, who was a skillful boatman, was released in order that he might conduct the boat in

safety to the shore; and no sooner had the shore been reached than Tell leaped from the boat, and soon afterward dispatched an arrow into the tyrant's heart, killing him instantly.

Captain John Smith and Pocahontas.—Captain John Smith, the old Virginia pioneer, is said to have been taken prisoner by the Indians, whose chief, Powhatan, determined to put him to death; but Pocahontas, the daughter of Powhatan, is said to have interceded for the prisoner, and saved his life; whereupon Smith was released and permitted to return to Jamestown.

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